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ABSTRACT

These 41 papers reflect the conference's focus on nonformal adult education. A major goal of the conference was to facilitate dialogue between researchers and practitioners who are concerned with lifelong learning issues. Four papers focus on aging, specifically intergenerational experiences, preretirement leisure counseling, aging of the work force, and memory aids. Community development is emphasized in four papers that address resource utilization networks, community education as a response to unemployment, and attitude scales. Two papers describe correctional education programs. Participant changes in leadership capabilities and a cooperative extension faculty workshop are discussed in papers concerned with extension education. Three presentations on international education focus on adult education in Nigeria and Greece and Farming Systems Research and Development. Four papers on learning theory discuss Eduard Lindeman's critical theory of adult learning, learning contracts, a holistic view of the adult learner, and Ira Progoff's "Intensive Journal." Four papers on literacy address reading instruction, educational credentials, adult high school non-completers, and locus of control and course completion. Two papers address policy in terms of policy evaluation and issues in legislating adult basic education. Concerns of 10 papers dealing with postsecondary and higher education include cost effectiveness of continuing education, participation patterns in credit and non-credit courses, adult university students' expectations of instructor behaviors, self-concept theory, environmental cognitions, university outreach, and continuing professional education. Two papers discuss educational technology--educational television and interactive video instruction. Single papers are offered on three topics: adult development, adult education history, and educational philosophy. Descriptions of 10 organizational sponsors are given, including university, state, regional and 2 national organizations. Authors' names and addresses are included with their respective papers. (YLB)

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LIFELONG LEARNING
RESEARCH CONFERENCE
PROCEEDINGS

February 16-17, 1984

DEPARTMENT OF
AGRICULTURAL & EXTENSION EDUCATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND

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PREFACE

This publication is a report of the proceedings of the Sixth Annual (1984) Lifelong Learning Research Conference held at the University of Maryland in College Park, Maryland on February 16 and 17, 1984. The conference focus on non-formal adult education grew out of a concern with problems in this region and the need to facilitate dialogue between researchers and practitioners involved in their resolution. Papers dealt with adult/continuing education concerns such as aging, literacy, teaching, learning, and policy. Other areas include community development, international education, extension education, volunteerism, and research methodology.

The conference was designed to build interagency linkages in the region. Sponsoring agencies include the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service, the University of Maryland's Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, the Conferences and Institutes Division of University College (University of Maryland), American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Metropolitan Washington Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Maryland Association of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education, University of Maryland Center for Community Education Development, Maryland State Department of Education, the Maryland Service Corps and the Adult Education Association of Virginia. The steering committee included representatives from the University of the District of Columbia, the University of Maryland, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, The Pennsylvania State University, George Mason University, the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service, the American Council on Education, the Maryland Service Corps, Office of Adult Education - Baltimore County Schools, the U.S. Department of Education, and the Maryland State Department of Education.

A major goal of the conference was to bridge the gap between theory and practice by providing a mechanism through which researchers and practitioners could share their concerns with each other. The conference had an interdisciplinary focus, bringing together people with different academic backgrounds who share similar concerns with lifelong learning issues.

The papers presented were selected "blind" by a peer committee that reviewed over 90 abstracts. The abstracts published in these proceedings were reproduced directly from copy provided by the authors. The authors' names and addresses are listed at the bottom of the first page of each abstract. If you desire more information, please correspond directly with them.

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Maryland Cooperative Extension Service

As part of the total University, the Cooperative Extension Service takes the University of Maryland to the people of Maryland, wherever they are. In its role as the "off-campus, non-credit, out-of-classroom" arm of the University, it extends the classroom to all parts of the State. The Maryland Cooperative Extension Service is known for its programs in agriculture (including care of urban home ground and gardens) home economics, 4-H and youth, community and resource development, and marine science. Off-campus faculty are located in each county and in Baltimore City. Joint support comes from the federal government for both 1862 and 1890 Land Grant institutions; and from the State and all 23 counties and Baltimore City in Maryland. General administration offices of the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service are located at the College Park campus, and the administration of the 1890 program (an integral part of the total MCES effort) is from offices of the University of Maryland Eastern Shore campus at Princess Anne.

OTHER SPONSORS INCLUDE:

Department of Agricultural and Extension Education

The Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, College Park, is a multidisciplinary department featuring graduate programs in Adult, Continuing and Extension Education. With a graduate faculty membership of 12, the department has specialties and interests in international education, community development, youth leadership and development, environmental education, community services, and teacher education in agriculture. The Department has traditionally maintained close working relationships with the Federal Extension Service, U.S. Office of Education, the National 4-H Center, the National FFA Center and the Maryland State Department of Education. In addition to the Adult, Continuing and Extension Education Graduate Program, graduate programs in Community Development and Rural Sociology, Environmental Education and Agricultural Education are offered along with an undergraduate teacher education program in agriculture. For further details write: Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, Room 0220, Symons Hall, College Park, Maryland 20742.

Maryland Service Corps

The Maryland Service Corps is a state volunteer agency which encourages and develops programs of public service which involve citizens of all ages in meeting the critical human needs of the states' residents. Volunteers are recruited to serve in all phases of state and local government, and in private non-profit agencies. Volunteers are trained in the general field of volunteerism and in their specific service assignments. They serve under the immediate supervision of the host agency in which they are placed and the general supervision of the Service Corps. For further information contact: Mr. James C. Thomson, Jr., Maryland Service Corps, Room 310, 1123 N. Eutaw Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21201.

The Maryland Association of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education

The Maryland Association of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education (MAACCE) is a professional association representing adult educators in the state of Maryland. MAACE is the result of a merger of MAAE, MAPSE, and MACE in January 1983, and is the Maryland affiliate of AAACE. MAACCE provides a variety of activities and interest areas for adult educators in public schools, colleges and universities, hospitals, correctional institutions, community organizations, government agencies, cooperative extension, and business and industry. An annual conference, several regional workshops, and three different publications are available to members, as well as a directory of consultants and an active legislation information network.

Adult and Community Education Branch Division of Instruction, Maryland State Department of Education

The Adult and Community Education Branch, part of the Division of Instruction, is responsible for the establishment and maintenance of federal and State-funded programs in adult and community education. The mission of the branch is to enhance and expand adult and community education offerings in the State of Maryland. This is accomplished through grant awards to local agencies, inservice and technical assistance, monitoring and evaluation processes, research, and dissemination. Program areas include Adult Basic Education, Adult General Education, GED Instructional programs, External Diploma Program, Evening High School, School-Community Centers Program, the Multi-Service Community Centers and Volunteer Programs. The branch office is located at the Maryland State Department of Education headquarters, 200 W. Baltimore Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21201.

University of Maryland University College Conferences and Institutes Program

Informal short courses and intensive training programs are offered by the Conferences and Institutes Program for participants wishing to take course work on a non-credit basis at the University level. Programs address personal and professional development and advancement in general knowledge. Career oriented courses are awarded Continuing Education Units (CEU's) — a nationally recognized method of evaluating non-credit professional courses. Courses are offered in College Park, Baltimore, Annapolis and other statewide and national geographic locations.

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) was founded on 11/12/82 at the National Adult Education Conference in San Antonio, Texas, as a result of the consolidation of the Adult Education Association of the USA (AEA) and the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education (NAPCAE). These associations served members and the public for over 30 years and this historical consolidation has united over 8,000 members and subscribers.

The purposes of AAACE are to provide leadership in advancing education as a lifelong learning process by: serving as a central forum for a wide variety of adult and continuing education special interest groups; advocating for the field of Adult and Continuing Education; encouraging the use of research, and to assist in the development of Human Resources.

AAACE publishes a monthly magazine, Lifelong Learning, a quarterly research journal, Adult Education, newsletters, The Newsletter of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, and numerous books, monographs, position papers, pamphlets, and reports.

AAACE also sponsors and conducts a national conference and regional conferences, seminars, and workshops.

Metropolitan Washington Association for Adult and Continuing Education

The Association for Adult and Continuing Education of Metropolitan Washington is a "state" affiliate of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, whose major purpose as stated in its constitution is "to provide leadership in advancing adult education as a lifelong process." Membership gives opportunities to participate in an active and growing organization of adult educators; exchange ideas with colleagues at regular meetings of the association; learn about current trends and innovations in the field; work with education; voice individual and group concerns for the future of adult education through the legislative process; and receive the newsletter of MWAACE. For further information write: Metropolitan Washington Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Washington, DC 20036.

Adult Education Association of Virginia

The Adult Education Association of Virginia, a vital, dynamic association of thirty years, is a comprehensive organization of individuals whose occupations and interests influence the education and training of adults. Membership (currently in excess of 200) includes educators from public and private schools, colleges, community colleges and universities as well as training directors from business, industry, the military and governmental agencies. The AEAV is committed to working for greater individual growth, a better Virginia and a better nation by encouraging, stimulating, and extending the continuing education of its own members and others throughout the state. The membership shares a determination to improve the quality of adult life in Virginia through continuing education.

American Council on Education

The American Council on Education (ACE), founded in 1918, is the nation's major coordinating body and principal voice for postsecondary education. It is an independent, comprehensive, voluntary association that is dedicated to the improvement of American postsecondary education. In cooperation with other associations, it serves as the locus of discussion and decision making on education issues of national importance. Composed of more than 1,600 postsecondary institutions and national and regional organizations, ACE has a thirty-seven member board of directors representing the diversity of American postsecondary education.

The Council acts as a coordinating body among national and regional education associations, while providing national leadership in cooperation with others, for improving standards, policies, programs, and services for post-secondary education; provides national leadership on equality issues for women, minorities, and older students in higher education; coordinates self-regulation initiatives; and offers technical information and advice on access for the handicapped; works with other associations in representing higher education to the federal government and serves as amicus curiae in judicial proceedings when appropriate; sponsors cooperative seminars to help presidents and other administrators improve management and leadership, offers a fellowship program to strengthen academic administrative leadership, and conducts national identification programs for the administrative advancement of women and minorities in higher education; facilitates access to higher education by evaluating and establishing credit recommendations for noncollegiate learning in the military, corporations, government agencies, labor unions, and associations; and operates the General Educational Development (GED) Testing Program for learning equivalency at the high school level; coordinates policy advice on issues of international education for ACE member institutions and the general higher education community and represents higher education interests in international education to the U.S. Government and foreign agencies; sponsors the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, which conducts the senior Fulbright program and promotes and encourages opportunities for international education exchange.

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ANDROGYNY: AN EMERGING CONCEPT FOR REFLECTION AND RESEARCH IN ADULT DEVELOPMENT

Marcie Boucouvalas[1]

Abstract

Over the last decade the construct of androgyny has emerged from its early roots in history, mythology, and literature to become a widely discussed and researched issue of psychological import. Psychological androgyny refers to the blending in one person of personality traits stereotypically considered "male" or "female". A comprehensive review of the literature on androgyny is provided. Going beyond a biological sex construct approach, characteristic of most adult development literature, androgyny and its potential application to research and reflection in adult development is discussed.

Initially, many seminal studies in adult development dealt with only males. Later attention was then directed to females in order to bring about a balance. Although some studies included both males and females, all followed a dichotomous biological sex construct approach. Generalizations based on biological sex neglected the concept of psychological androgyny, which is introduced in the present inquiry.

Rather than dealing with the notion of biological sex (male or female), psychological androgyny deals with psychosocial notions of gender (masculine of feminine)—psychological traits that are stereotypically assigned to male (e.g. assertiveness) or female (e.g. supportiveness). An androgynous being can embody both sets of characteristics and call on them depending upon the demands of the situation. Sometimes, seemingly opposite traits are blended into one act, phenomena discussed in more depth in a later section.

Some authors (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980; Singer, 1976; Warren, 1982) remind us that by labeling the traits "masculine" and "feminine" people erroneously assume that the traits are the monopoly of one sex or the other, rather than keeping mindful that they represent people's expectations about the behavior of men and women. This dilemma prevents some innately androgynous people from fulfilling their potential.

Despite a potential link between sex and gender which some sociobiologists might offer, the evidence submitted seems insufficient to obliterate and counter the growing body of literature supporting the thesis that humankind has the potential to transcend sex role stereotyping and become more integrated in the process. Of course, psychological development is the issue; hermaphroditism, bisexuality, and unisex are not part of the androgyny concept.

Androgyny represents a contribution to the reunion of previously considered opposite traits. As we move toward what has been termed an "age of synthesis," many previously established dichotomies are now being perceived and understood as complementary parts of a greater whole. Signposts include: integration of right/left brains, mind-body-spirit, quantitative and qualitative research. Even in business and industry, as recognized by Sargent (1981, p. xii) "the movement toward androgyny in management is part of the larger movement toward balance in society-at-large...becoming fully human."

One is cautioned, however, that androgyny "cannot happen until a massive reorganization of society removes the barriers" and that until then we should be "ready to face the continuing clash between androgyny and the prevailing social values" (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980, p. 359). "Androgyny suggests not only a new standard for individual psychological development, but also a thorough reorganization of domestic, political, and other social institutions" (Warren, 1982, p. 173). In addition to external environmental barriers, internalized societal norms may also intervene. Androgyny often "threatens many presuppositions about individuals' identity as man or woman, and hence threatens the security of those people, including most of us, who have vested interests in the conventional attitudes toward sex (maleness and femaleness) and gender (masculinity and femininity)" (Singer, 1976, p. [illegible]5).

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[1] Marcie Boucouvalas, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Northern VA Graduate Center, 2990 Telestar Court, Falls Church, VA 22042

Despite a rapidly growing body of research and literature on androgyny, however, application of the construct to adult development is relatively absent. Yet, based on empirical studies and consequent theories proposed by a number of stage theorists (e.g. Loevinger on ego development, Fowler on stages of faith, Kohlberg and Gilligan on moral development, and others) integration of opposites and dualities is witnessed as a "final" stage of growth.

Neither has the literature on androgyny been systematically and comprehensively brought together yet to map the territory and determine implications and suggest areas for further inspection. Accordingly, this paper represents the writer's review and synthesis of the ever-expanding literature, offering a comprehensive overview of categories which emerged from the inquiry, a review of works dealing with definitions, descriptions, and operationalizations of the construct, and a more focused inspection of works targeting adult development.

SCOPE AND METHOD OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Twelve books and over 50 dissertations were retrieved. A search of both ERIC and Psychological Abstracts yielded about 500 more entries. The search commenced with the year in which androgyny was first used as a descriptor: 1977 for ERIC, 1982 for Psychological Abstracts. An earlier search of the latter did not seem warranted since much overlap appeared between entries in the two systems. Moreover, an author search was conducted back to 1970 for those who continually surfaced as "key informants."

Following Glassner and Corzine (1982, p. 317), a "systematic, inductive approach to [the] literature review" was undertaken. Rather than "starting from the best known theories and substantive studies," the literature was mapped according to the "categories that emerged." Avenues for further inspection, however, were generated only for the area of adult development.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Androgyny is—in reality—a very old concept which permeates the disciplines of philosophy, history, theology, and literature. Singer (1976) refers to androgyny as an "archetype inherent in the human psyche." Her book traces andogyny in the theological and mythological literature, while Colgrave (1979) explores androgyny through Chinese culture and the Yin/Yang. Heilbrun (1974), on the other hand, chose to examine androgyny as depicted in literary characters from ancient to modern times. Other authors acknowledge the roots of androgyny, but address its more nascent, contemporary usage in the discipline of psychology. Much of the theoretical grounding rests on Jung's theory of anima and animus. Man's psyche is the container of anima, the contrasexual feminine element which, if not released into consciousness, can bind one's energies and even cause one to look for another person to "fill out the empty spaces within" (Singer, 1976, p. 324). Conversely, a woman's psyche is the container of animus, the contrasexual male element. These thoughts tended to resurface throughout the literature review. As delineated below, a number of categories emerged. Although space constraints precluded detailed referencing and citation of studies, such information and a comprehensive bibliography are available from the author. Interestingly, only one bibliography was retrieved (O'Neil & Muchow, 1980). It focused on men; androgyny was only one component.

Categories (Not mutually exclusive—overlap occurs)

1. Definitions and descriptions of androgyny as: Concept, construct, theory; as attitude, perception, behavior—including critiques discussing issues and underlying assumptions. A number of "key informants" (i.e. authors) emerged: Bem, Heilbrum, Sargent, Singer, and others.

2. Measurement and methodological issues: operationalization and validation of the construct, instrumentation and scoring procedures.

3. Correlates and antecedents of androgyny: A voluminous number of entries investigating: (a) the relationship between androgyny and a variety of variables, (b) comparison between androgyny and other sex role orientations on a variety of variables. Among the variables investigated were: personal adjustment and well-being, flexibility, self-esteem, self disclosure, loneliness, interpersonal relations, personal and professional relations, self-actualization, cognitive complexity, biological sex, sexuality, career choice, social compe-

tence, social conformity, athletics and sports, political attitudes, and others.

4. Facilitating movement toward androgyny in individuals and society (facilitating and inhibiting factors). Role of parents, schools (teachers and counselors), managers (organizational development spotlighted) stressed. Mediating influences included both external constraints of the environment as well as internal ambivalence of individuals. Societal environment, work settings, school, family, personal and professional relationships highlighted. Role of sex stereotypes on impeding movement toward androgyny was explored.

5. Leadership and androgyny: From organizations to small groups, a link between androgyny and more balanced, flexible, and effective leadership was addressed.

6. Role of biological sex.

7. Special populations: Other than adults and the aged, children and adolescents surfaced as two "special populations" studied. In fact, an instrument specifically designed to measure androgyny in adolescents has been developed (Thomas & Robinson, 1981). Other populations studied included: managers, couples in intimate and marital relationships, dental students, clergywomen, the incarcerated, the alcoholic, and the American Indian woman.

For purposes of discussion, studies dealing with adulthood and adult development will be telescoped, as will categories 1 and 2 (descriptions and measurement) above since they serve as a foundation for better understanding androgyny.

Definitions and Descriptions. A bulk of the literature is concerned with lending clarification to psychological androgyny as concept, construct, theory. Most definitions concur that androgyny is a holistic concept which refers to psychological wholeness of the person, as witnessed by the combined presence of stereotypic feminine and masculine characteristics. Further distinctions are drawn between "dualistic" and "hybrid" models of androgyny. Dualistic androgyny entails co-existence of "masculine" and "feminine" traits so that they are expressed, but at different situation-appropriate times. The hybrid model involves the integration and blending of stereotypic traits in one act. An example might include striking down the unjust with compassion. Such behavior, attitude, and perceptions seems reminiscent of Maslow's self-actualizing person or Plato's philospher-king. In fact, it is hypothesized that the hybrid model might be a more advanced form of androgyny (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980). Mindful of the probability that cultural forces can affect the development of androgynous beings, definitions include societal as well as personal androgyny. Of course, in itself, this growing volume of literaure on psychological androgyny challenges both the cultural stereotypes of "appropriate" behavior for males and females, but even more noteworthy is a growing evidence which is devaluing a long-standing stance linking well-being and health to the learning of appropriate psychological sex traits and roles.

Measurement. Although 4 instruments are purported to measure androgyny, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was used most often. Developed by Sandra Bem, the BSRI has generated dialogue with regard to its scoring procedures. Based on feedback, Bem altered scoring from a use of a t ratio to a median split technique. A four-fold classification resulted. (a) androgynous (above the median on both "masculine" and "feminine"traits),(b) Undifferentiated (below the median on both sets of traits),(c) Sex-typed-scoring (high on sex typed traits, low on opposite traits),(d) Cross-sex typed (males scoring high on female traits, low on male, and vice versa).

Telescoping Adult Development. While many studies do employ adult populations in an effort to determine the relationship between androgyny and a number of different variables (e.g. self-esteem, life satisfaction, etc.) relatively little attention has been given to androgyny and adult development. In total, only 8 articles and 4 papers were retrieved. One book, however, (Olds, 1981) reports on research using a life history approach to determine the process of development toward androgyny. The author highlights androgynous roles in later life, as does much of the literature. Her findings indicate that many older adults describe and perceive themselves in androgynous terms and that successful aging and psychological well-being are most often associated with an androgynous self-description. These studies may represent at least an initial response to the recognition by White (1979) that studies failed to investigate androgyny as a developmental process.

Havighurst, noted for his long-standing research on developmental tasks of adulthood, has recently entered the arena of writings on androgyny. His discussion of understanding the process of sex role development both in children and adults (Havighurst, 1983) may provide a pathway to determine why current findings document a growth of androgyny in adults and a change in sex role behavior recurrently surfacing in later age. The author's recognition of this trend in his own research is consistent with both longitudinal (Livson, 1977) and cross-sectional (Hyde & Phyllis, 1979; Zaks et al., 1979) studies which revealed that people tend to become more androgyncus with increasing age. Although literature exists on the presence of androgyny in children and adolescents, it is unclear with regard to the degree to which one can develop androgynously as a child, or as suggested by Rebecca and Oleshanky's chapter on sex role transcendence (Kaplan & Bean, 1976), that one must progress through a sequence in which one identifies with a sex role before one can transcend it. Moreover, the question of whether the movement toward androgyny is more typically found in men or women or both needs further study. The findings of Urbonas-Bendikas (1981), for example, suggest that over time females may move from a stereotypically female to a more androgynous stance, while males move from an androgynous to a more masculine stance. Other authors (Kaplan & Bean, 1976) advance the notion that it may be more socially acceptable and advantageous for females to move toward androgyny, which is perceived as a role gain than males for whom it is often perceived as a role loss. This thought may account for the findings of Puglisi & Jackson (1980) in which both men and women displayed peak masculinity scores in the middle years of adulthood.

In a critique, Wells & McGee (1979) suggest employing a sociological perspective (e.g. effects of both ageism and sexism) to further research. In a more recent effort the authors (McGee & Wells, 1982) critique Sinnot's theory, cited earlier, as being too sketchy; more research is called for. Also discussed was Guttman, whose research was not retrieved from this literature review on androgny —probably because his thesis asserts that gender roles tend to be maintained during active parenting and that a role reversal occurs as parenting wanes. This theory is critiqued on the basis of limited evidence, weakness in methodology, and a failure to acknowledge the impact of women in the work force. Of course, it seems equally reasonable to this writer that for individuals who allow only one set of characteristics to manifest into consciousness that, following Jung, the "contrasexual" characteristics will press for release, particularly when "controls" are lifted.

Relatively little interface had been attempted between existing phase and stage theorists of adult development and the construct of androgyny. Two empirical exceptions surfaced. Liberman & Gaa (1978) investigated the relations between androgyny and moral and ego development (á la Kohlberg & Loevinger, repectively) with 21 subjects. The small sample size, however. precluded the use of the median-split technique of analysis which, as noted earlier, represents a more accurate depiction of androgyny. The authors suggested that the weakness may have accounted for the lack of significant results and issued a plea that we not dismiss this line of developmental inquiry. Waterman & Whitbourne (1982), following this developmental route, examined—with a sample size of 364--the relationship of androgyny to psychosocial development (á la Erikson). The highest scores on psychosocial development were yielded by androgynously oriented individuals, indicating that growth toward androgyny may indeed be related to growth toward maturity and integration as put forth by stage and phase theorists in the adult development literature. Clearly, more research is warranted.

CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER IMPLICATIONS

The present effort was designed to provide a comprehensive overview and understanding of the burgeoning literature on androgyny, its current and potential relation to adult development, and to draw implications and recommendations for further reflection, research, and action. As a first step in an ongoing inquiry, it provided a descriptive overview and inventory of the literature and its nuances, with a more focused emphasis on adult development. Equipped with this foundation, an illustrative next step would be to undertake a more critical review of the conceptualizations, underlying assumptions, and methodological approaches taken in research efforts. From a practical perspective, a next step might be to attempt to introduce androgyny to one's personal and professional life. Androgyny might lead to another way of growing, learning, and developing flexibility so critical to self-directed learning.

A number of potential avenues for further investigation emerge. This examination of the concept of androgyny raises questions about the nature and meaning of sex differences and their role in adult developmental literature. It has been suggested that sole use of a dichotomous biological sex construct approach may be limiting our knowledge of adult development and growth. Since, according to adult developmental theorists, the maturation process involves increasing integration of polarities and transcendence of dualities, this leads one to question whether individuals at "higher" levels of growth are more androgynous in nature and have transcended sex roles stereotypes (in behavior, attitude, and perception). Another fruitful area of inquiry lies in the role of sociological and cultural factors in facilitating or inhibiting androgynous growth.

In more practical terms, one might become more aware, both personally and professionally, of the potential to balance these seemingly opposite polar traits in oneself. Also, recognition might emerge of the deleterious effects sustained, for example, by the woman, who, in trying to exhibit what is perceived as "appropriate" role behavior for a professional suppresses and may even deny the compassionate traits, rather than use them appropriately--all in order to fulfill a "male" model of success. Coversely, lies the male who—in order to appear "in charge"—denies the *urge* to display compassion when firing an employee. With recognition and acceptance of the androgynous potential, such constraints might diminish.

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INTERGENERATIONAL EXPERIENCES AS A POTENTIAL FOR CONTINUED ADULT DEVELOPMENT: A REPORT OF RECENT RESEARCH

Paula W. Dail, Ph.D.[1]

Abstract

Concern regarding the character of intergenerational relationships has been growing as the population of older adults continues to increase. This paper reports the first results of a pilot study conducted in a laboratory designed to bring together older adults, young adults and young children in a setting constructed to facilitate social interaction. The primary focus of the analysis of these initial data centered upon change in perceptions about the elderly among the young children and young adults. For the older adult, the concern was with increased social interaction which would support continued adult development. Results indicate positive change in perceptions of older adults and increased social interaction among elderly participants. These findings are interpreted with reference to the implications of intergenerational programs for older adults.

INTRODUCTION

As the population of older adults continues to increase, concerns regarding understanding and communication across generations are becoming more prevalent. Since demographers predict that greater than 55 million Americans will be over age 65 by the year 2000 (Siegel, 1973) intergenerational relationships are deserving of careful and systematic study.

One area recognized as important to successful communication and understanding across generations addresses stereotypes about the aged which affect both perceptions and subsequent relationships with older adults. Conceptions and attitudes about the elderly can affect the way in which they are treated, and stereotypic notions regarding the needs and responses of the elderly may affect actual behavioral response to them (Brubaker and Powers, 1976; Palmore, 1969). Assumptions about the aging process and the aged may also influence the self definition and behavior of the elderly themselves (Brubaker and Powers, 1976; Bennett and Eckman, 1973; Buhler, 1971) thus providing stimuli which may elicit possibly unsatisfactory responses.

Previous studies about intergenerational contact have been conflictual in their findings. Some have found intergenerational contact to be detrimental in reference about the aged (Bekker and Taylor, 1966). However, most studies concerned with the effect of intergenerational contact have found that it has had a positive effect upon perceptions about the aged, and served to reduce stereotypic notions about the elderly (Tuckman and Lorge, 1953; Rosencranz and McNevin, 1969). Dail and Johnson (1983) found that educational information about the elderly also served to reduce stereotypic notions about characteristics of the elderly.

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[1] Paula W. Dail, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Family and Adult Development and Director, Intergenerational Laboratory, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751

In recognition of this need to learn more about intergenerational exchange, a laboratory was established for students in child, family and adult development. The purpose of the laboratory was to give students an opportunity to learn more about older adults, to study the effects of bringing together older adults and young children, and to measure the effects of intergenerational contact upon all participants.

The pilot study used a pretest/posttest design, an experimental and control group, and was trifocal in purpose, oriented toward: a) assessment of the effect of intergenerational contact for all participants; b) further clarification of the potential of intergenerational relationships; and c) providing opportunity for increased social interaction for the older adult participants. The objectives of the study were:

1. To measure possible change in attitudes and beliefs about the aged among the university student participants in the laboratory,
2. to measure possible change in attitudes and beliefs about the elderly among the young children participants,
3. to assess the effects of the intergenerational contact upon the elderly participants,
4. to analyze the resultant data in reference to the effects of intergenerational contact upon the potential for continued adult development.

METHOD

The Intergenerational Laboratory is a large room having tables, chairs and a one way observation mirror. This was used as the site for young children, young adults and elderly adults to come together for a period of two hours once per week for eight weeks. The young adults and older adults were together without the children present for an additional five two hour time segments. During this time a particular preplanned activity was conducted. These activities were designed to facilitate group participation.

Sample: The experimental group of young children (N=17) consisted of nine males and eight females ranging in age from 6.08 to 2.91 years ($\bar{X}$=4.12; S.D.=2.91). The control group for the young children (N=16) consisted of eight males and eight females ranging in age from 5.25 to 4.50 years ($\bar{X}$=4.71; S.D.=.24).

The experimental group of young adults (N=10 females) ranged in aged from 19 to 22 years ($\bar{X}$=20.6; S.D.=.84). The control group of young adults (N=11 females) ranged in age from 18 to 21 years ($\bar{X}$=19.08; S.D.=.90).

The older adult participants varied from 15 to 18 in number and ranged in age from 60 to 98 ($\bar{X}$=80.63; S.D.=.42). All were residents of the county facility for the elderly. Four of the older adult participants were developmentally disabled or physically impaired. The remaining adult participants were capable of high level social interaction, although some were wheelchair bound.

Procedure

Using a pretest/posttest design, and an experimental and control group for both the children and the young adults, each was measured for evidence of change in their perceptions of older adults. The experimental groups were measured prior to their participation in the Intergenerational Laboratory and again at the end of the experience. The control groups were measured within the same time frame.

For the young adults the Palmore Facts on Aging Quiz (FAQ) (Palmore, 1977) was used as the measuring instrument. The Preschool Children's Perceptions of the Aged Test (Click, 1975) was used to measure the children's perceptions of the older adults. Older adult participants were assessed using observational and recording techniques.

RESULTS

Table One illustrates the pretest/posttest scores for the experimental group of children. This instrument was scored using a scale of -1, (negative response), 0 (neutral response) and +1 (positive response). A score of +13 is possible, and would indicate a strongly positive attitude toward the elderly. Although the mean score did increase (4.41 pretest, 5.41 posttest) the difference was not statistically significant ($t_{16}=-.709$; $P\leq.05$).

The control group had a pretest score of $\bar{X}=+9.0$ (S.D. 3.37) and a posttest score of $\bar{X}=+7.43$ (S.D.=1.89). It is not clear why the control group scores shifted in the direction of becoming less positive in their attitudes about the elderly, nor is it clear why the control group, in general scored higher on the test, but it is possible that the control group results were biased by the examiner. The control group was six months older than the experimental group, which is developmentally significant in this age range, and may also provide partial explanation for the overall higher scores.

Table Two describes the pretest/posttest scores for the experimental group of young adults. These scores indicate a statistically significant difference between pretest and posttest scores ($t_9=-2.79$; $P.\leq.05$). The change is in the direction of more positive and factual knowledge and perception about the elderly. The control group pretest score was $\bar{X}=16.17$ (S.D.=2.37), and posttest score was $\bar{X}=14.75$ (S.D.=3.30). It is not clear why the control group shifted in the direction of more negative perceptions and less knowledge about the elderly. It may be an artifact of the test experience itself.

TABLE 1

Pretest/Posttest Scores
Perceptions of the Aged Test
Experimental Group (n=17)

Pretest	Posttest
$\bar{X}=4.41$ S.D.=6.06	$\bar{X}=5.41$ S.D.=4.44
$t_{16}=-.709, P\leq.05$	ns

TABLE 2

Pretest/Posttest Scores
Palmore Facts on Aging Quiz
Experimental Group (N=10)

Pretest	Posttest
$\bar{X}=15.1$ S.D.=1.79	$\bar{X}=17.2$ S.D.=2.74
$t_9=-2.79$ $P\leq.05$	sig.

The older adult participants were observed for their reactions to the intergenerational experience. It was particularly noted when increased social behavior occurred, such as initiation of speech or touching. It was noted that the older adults had lowest numbers of speaking efforts when they were with other elderly, without either the younger adults or the young children present, and there was no touching observed. When the younger adult students were present there were more speech behaviors which were initiated by the older adults than when the young adults were not present, but it was the younger adults that initiated the speech most often. Over the course of the 13 weeks that the young adults and the older adults were together it was noted that one of the developmentally disabled participants began to manifest more verbal responses and began to initiate conversation. This had not been observed prior to his intergenerational experience. There was infrequent touching between the older adults and the young adults, and when it did occur it was most often initiated by the younger adult. The highest number of verbal behaviors occurred when the children were present, and were more frequently initiated by the older adult. The older adults also touched the children much more frequently and were also touched by the children much more often than by the young adults or by each other. These results were subjective in that they are based upon less rigorous, journal-type observations as well as some video-taping, which was viewed for evidence of social interaction.

DISCUSSION

Failure to find statistically significant change in the children's perception of older adults was not felt to be a negative finding. The exposure to the older adults was quite limited (two hours per week for eight weeks) and possibly not sufficiently impressive to the young children to cause significant change in a short period of time. An additional explanation may be within the structure of the measuring procedure. It is difficult to administer tests on subjective matter to very young children. There are semantic problems as well as comprehension difficulties. Burke (1982) reports that children under age six have difficulties making age-based discriminations. The most important indications that these data provide is that the young children's perceptions of the elderly did not diminish after having contact with them.

The positive change in perceptions of the elderly that the young adults indicated after having participated in the laboratory is interpreted as a validation for the experience. Additionally, in their journals, students described themselves as becoming more positive in their perceptions and understanding of the elderly. Many also reported that their actual experience with the elderly was enhanced for having had some factual knowledge about the psychological and social characteristics of adults in this age group. Students reported much more positive feelings toward the elderly than their scores on the measuring instrument indicated. They also reported carrying this change in perception into their relationships with other elderly individuals, and felt that they, as individuals, benefited from this increased knowledge in that their behavior and the subsequent responses that they received were more positive than previously. These data support earlier findings about the effects of experience on learning (Dail and Dickson, 1983) and of education on perceptions and attitudes toward the elderly (Dail and Johnson, 1983).

A prime focus for the paper concerns benefits of intergenerational contact for the older adult participants. This is also the area in which it has been the most difficult to obtain quantitative data set. However, it has been recognized previously that successful aging is related to social as well as cognitive influences, and that both are interrelated (Leonard, 1982). Thus, intergenerational contact is one very important way to contribute to this goal, particularly if the contact is positive for all. These pilot data indicate that the intergenerational experience can be beneficial.

Specific to the older adult, intergenerational contact may assist in: a) increasing his/her circle of friends; b) developing a sense of self-worth and importance; c) experiencing recreational activities acceptable to those who would ordinarily reject them; d) remaining more functional, useful, and independent...a need of the elderly as they live longer.

In broader, social terms, development of programs appropriate to facilitation of intergenerational contact are indicated. It would also appear that these programs should have an educative component attached to them because stereotypes about aging are best controlled by preventing their development, and this prevention occurs through educational experiences.

These pilot data have also indicated the direction for further research. One critical area needing exploration concerns the older adult participant. It is vital to develop some means of further understanding the meaning of intergenerational contact for the older adult. Actual testing of a rigorous sort is very difficult to administer to the older adult population, thus it is necessary to search for other ways of obtaining this information, possibly by some retrospective evaluation methods.

It is also important to further understand what types of intergenerational activities are the most beneficial to the participants. Greater attention needs to be paid to the character and logistics of these experiences so that maximum benefit is possible and negative experiences are both understood and minimized.

There is a mandate to educate young adults about the potential for intergenerational contact. Educational programs developed with the objective of facilitating intergenerational contact in a variety of settings are important directions for the future because young adults may act as the facilitators of intergenerational programs.

It is further important to expose young children to older adults so that the risk of developing negative stereotypes about the elderly may be reducted.

These first results indicate that education can serve to reduce stereotypes about the aged population. In so doing, progress is made toward enabling a better, more productive and contributory life for the older adults in the population. In addition, crossgenerational contact acts as a support to the older adult, encouraging continued development over the lifespan.

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PRE-RETIREMENT LEISURE COUNSELING
AND
LEISURE ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION OF RETIRED INDIVIDUALS

Deborah L. Kerstetter, M.S.
Frank B. Guadagnolo, Ph. D.[1]

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between pre-retirement leisure counseling and the rates of leisure activity participation among retired individuals. Using t-test and chi-square analysis, leisure activity rates were compared between 62 retirees who had received pre-retirement leisure counseling and 99 retirees who had not been exposed to the program. Examining leisure activity rates at various stages in pre- and post-retirement offered little support for the disengagement literature; however, findings suggest that pre-retirement leisure counseling may, in fact, impact upon leisure life-styles during retirement.

INTRODUCTION

One of the earliest theories in the area of social gerontology was Cumming and Henry's (1961) disengagement theory. The researchers suggest that old age is a distinct phase of life with different maturational goals than middle age. According to the authors, aging results in an inevitable reduction and severing of relationships, thus serving as a major force in the reduction of social supports. With regards to the disengagement theory, the findings are mixed. Some investigators concur that a decline with age does occur (Hoar 1961; Cavan et al. 1964); however, several other studies found little or no decline in activity levels when compared to age (Youmans 1969; Riley and Foner 1968).

Researchers uncovering little or no disengagement contend that satisfactory adaptation to retirement requires that both social relationships and productive activities be available, thereby reducing probable vacuum (Reichard 1962). The question to be examined is whether such programs as retirement counseling can serve to reduce this vacuum. In this study, the investigators were particularly interested in examining the role that pre-retirement leisure counseling might play.

PRE-RETIREMENT LEISURE COUNSELING

One factor which is central to the leisure counseling process, as enunciated by McDowell (1975), is the exploration of activity involvement. However, the relationship of activity involvement to the pre-retirement and post-retirement stages of life has been largely ignored. Most studies simply attempt to correlate age and activity level. No one would disagree that aging impacts upon leisure participation; however, the consequences of being removed from the work setting certainly have a bearing on both the nature and frequency of leisure participation. Thus, the study focused on whether employees receiving pre-retirement leisure counseling demonstrate different leisure patterns than their counterparts who were not exposed to the counseling program.

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[1] Deborah L. Kerstetter, currently a consultant with Venture, Inc., is completing her doctoral work at The Pennsylvania State University.

Frank B. Guadagnolo is a member of the Recreation and Parks faculty, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, 16802

PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The investigators, adopting a null hypothesis, proposed that there would be no significant difference in leisure activity participation between the retirees who had received pre-retirement leisure counseling and those who had not. Again, employing the null hypothesis, the two groups were compared at various pre- and post-retirement stages.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

The population sampled was composed of 250 retired individuals from the Sun Company's three corporate headquarters in Texas, Ohio, and Pennsylvania. Two separate sample populations were selected. One sample represented the retirees who had not completed the pre-retirement counseling program (retirees) while the other group was composed of counseled retirees (counseled retirees) who had completed the Company's retirement program.

A computer listing was secured for both the counseled retirees and retirees in order to assure a stratified sample of retired individuals; that is, stratified by means of age categorization. A total sample of 250 retired individuals were originally selected for the study. From this group, 100 were counseled retirees and 150 were retirees. From the sample of 250 retired individuals, 62 of the counseled retirees and 99 of the retirees responded to the questionnaire.

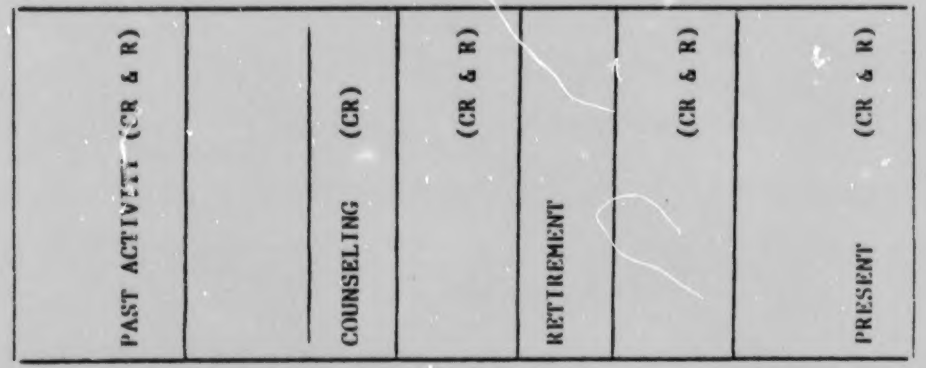
INSTRUMENTATION

Activity Involvement

The instrument used to measure activity involvement was a modified form of the McKechnie Leisure Activities Blank (M-Lab), a comprehensive measuring tool which acknowledges 120 leisure activities of which a subject can report past and future activity involvement. Those participants who were involved in pre-retirement leisure counseling were asked to indicate their activity participation at five stages: past activity; immediately prior to counseling; immediately prior to retirement; immediately after retirement; and at present. Those individuals who did not receive counseling reported activity participation at four stages: past activity; immediately prior to retirement; immediately after retirement; and at present. With the modification of the McKechnie Leisure Activities Blank, a respondent's score could range from 0 to a maximum of 149 different activities. The measure of overall involvement was calculated by determining the mean score at each of the stages selected.

Figure 1

Activity Stages: Pre- and Post-retirement for Counseled Retirees (CR) and Retirees (R)



Demographic Background

Sex, age, marital status, reason for retirement, perceived health status, income levels, and three attitudinal questions concerning free time and leisure were asked of all subjects. With respect to the demographic data, each respondent selected the categories most representative of their status.

FINDINGS

Demographics

Among the counseled retirees, 50 were male and 12 were female and among the retirees, 92 were male and 7 were female. With respect to age, the sample ranged from 52 to 69 years, with counseled retirees reflecting a mean of 62.7 and retirees 62.2 years of age. Among counseled retirees, 87% indicated they were "currently married." Their counterparts, the retirees, reflected a 92% rate of "currently married."

Regarding reasons for retirement, 86% of the respondents viewed their retirement as "voluntary," 11% considered their retirement as "compulsory" and only 3% indicated that retirement was due to a "disability." Both groups, the counseled retirees and the retirees, reported similar percentages within one percentage point of each other on reasons for retirement.

When comparing health status, the counseled retirees reported a significantly better level of health even though, both groups, generally reflected fairly high levels of health.

When reporting current gross household income, approximately one-half selected the $10,000-24,999 income bracket. Nearly one-third indicated their income was in the $25,000-49,999 category. A further breakdown indicates that 40% of the counseled retirees and 25% of the retirees were in the $25,000-49,999 bracket.

Attitudinal Statements

There were no significant differences between the two groups when examining their responses to the three-item questionnaire concerning leisure, free time, and leisure in society. The notable difference was evidenced when comparing perceived health and attitude towards leisure. Some 78% of those reporting "excellent" health "strongly disagree" that their leisure was spent "killing time." At the other end of the continuum, 59% of those characterizing their health as "average" or "below average" took a moderate position as to whether their leisure could be categorized as "killing time." Thus, it appears that individuals' perceptions of their health reflect upon their attitudes towards leisure time. This is not unexpected since there is evidence to suggest that individuals in better health respond to the prospect of activity more favorably than people in a poorer state of health.

Participation at Various Activity Stages

Demographics

Significant associations were found to exist between demographics and activity levels, specifically with sex and marital status. Using chi-square analysis, the change in number of activities was categorized into low and high classifications for each of the stages noted in Figure 1.

With respect to sex, males and females were significantly (.03) different in their levels of activity participation. When comparing activity levels prior to retirement, and at the time the questionnaire was administered, a majority of males reported little or no change in activity levels while the majority of females actually reported an increase in the total number of activities. Additionally, a difference in activity rates was found between the year just prior to retirement and following retirement. Sixty-one percent of the males indicated a reduction in activities while 68% of the females reported an increase.

Regarding the issue of marital status, "singles" reported significantly (.02) lower activity levels than marrieds prior to retirement. Approximately two-thirds of the singles reported a total number of activities in the 0-18 range; however, fifty percent of the "marrieds" reported activity levels in the 19-53 activity category. Interestingly, when examining activity changes over time, the researchers found that from pre-retirement (past activity) to the time that the instrument was administered, "singles" demonstrated a significantly (.01) greater increase in activities; that is, 28% of the "marrieds" indicated an increase while 62% of the "singles" increased their activities.

Pre-retirement Counseling

When comparing the mean number of activities at various stages, the means were significantly different between counseled retirees and retirees. After retirement, counseled retirees reported an activity mean of 22.7 compared to 19.7 for retirees. The final stage examined (current activity) reflected similar differences in that counseled retirees had a mean of 23.3 as opposed to the retirees' mean of 20.3.

These results suggest that counseled retirees were involved in more activities than were retirees immediately after retirement and at the time this survey was completed. All measurements were directional, suggesting a relationship between pre-retirement leisure counseling and activity participation. Pre-retirement leisure counseling appears to be the most influential at the post-retirement stages of activity participation.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings and conclusions of this study do not lend support to the disengagement theory of adult development as originally proposed by Cumming and Henry (1961). Upon measuring the association between the variable leisure activity participation and retirement, it was found that the majority of individuals either maintained or added to their activity participation after retirement. Examining the results more closely, there is a relationship with other demographic variables that brings the forementioned theory into a more accurate perspective. In this investigation, marital status and sex were significantly related to activity participation. Interpretation of those associations suggests that there are intervening variables within an individual's background that impact upon activity participation after retirement. Through use of an activity inventory, Cavan et al. (1949) established that activity participation was influenced by gender. In a related study, Morgan (1976) found that marital status was also associated with the number of activities; specifically, she found that those not married were more likely to constrict or reduce their number of activities over time.

While leisure counseling packages encourage the participants to acknowledge their physical and psychological parameters, this investigation suggests that demographic variables be factored into the initial pre-retirement leisure counseling seminar.

Further implications of this study include the need to investigate other intervening variables which could possibly contribute to an aging person's fluctuation in activity participation. Environmental variables such as housing, location, and mobility should be examined. Although broad and encompassing many aspects of the aging lifestyle, personality may also be of importance when searching for the predictors of an individual's activity participation.

Very often, the labeling of individuals as "one of a kind" results in the masking of their unique lifestyles and personalities. Categorization may take place to the extent that one's individuality is dismantled. Leisure counseling, in its broadest terms, is a group service and serves the "general" aging populations. While an attempt to meet every person's specific needs would be unrealistic, an integration of each individual's background and future plans would be a recommended procedure within a leisure counseling program.

An absence of literature suggests that substantial research is needed to demonstrate the effectiveness of pre-retirement leisure counseling. Further research on the nature and quality of leisure activity in addition to quantity would be beneficial toward understanding the total concept of activity participation prior to and within the retirement milieu. The use of time-budget analysis within a longitudinal format would result in a more thorough quantitative and qualitative data base. Finally, the researchers would suggest that the more recent studies on finitude by Sill (1980) may offer some answers. Finitude, the individual's estimate of his/her time remaining before death, may serve to constrict life space, thereby reducing level of involvement. This perception, regardless of physical incapacity or age, may serve as a determinant of leisure activity participation for many.

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THE AGING OF THE WORKFORCE
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE 1980s

Florence D. Tucker[1]

Abstract

A research study of the training needs of 454 older workers (40 years of age and older) was conducted at the U.S. Geological Survey. The population represented five technologically oriented career fields. The majority of participants cited training needs in the areas of management and technology, stating they are being underutilized. Implications from the study are that older workers are a valuable cadre in the labor force and it is becoming necessary for managers to acknowledge, develop and captalize on this resource.

DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS

The labor force is directly affected by the demographic change resulting from people living longer, remaining healthy longer, and working at paying jobs longer. It is becoming necessary for the private and Federal sectors to address the impact and implications of an aging population on the workforce and on employment policy. With fewer people providing the labor force, due to the decline in the birth rate, it is becoming necessary to discourage early retirement of older workers. There is a need to provide incentives for employees to extend their working years.

One of the changes which has taken place in laws concerning employment is the Age Discrimination in Employment Ace (ADEA), amended in 1978, which changes retirement procedures. The retirement age has been advanced from 65 to 70 years of age in the private sector and removed entirely in the Federal sector. The impact of voluntary retirement in the Federal government for older workers is significant (Morse, 1979).

New Policies

New policies and practices are growing out of the removal of automatic retirement of workers, for manpower planning and utilization. Organizations can no longer plan ahead for replacements in certain positions based on the routine vacating of these positions by the retirement of the incumbents at age 65. The people filling these positions may continue to perform needed functions for many years beyond the age of 65.

Current trends indicate fewer new workers in the labor resource, due to the drop of the birthrate in the last 20 years. Thus, there will not be as many replacements for retiring workers as in previous years. Federal agencies then will have need for the older cadre of employees to continue to produce.

Research Study

To explore this issue, a study was conducted to determine the perceptions of older workers (40 years of age and older) as a means of determining their training needs in the technological and/or management areas, withing the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS). The study was conducted at the USGS, a Federal agency within the US Department of the Interior.

The study was conducted in the following manner: purposes and research questions were established; the related literature was reviewed; a questionnaire was developed and distributed to all 454 older USGS workers in five selected career fields in the metropolitan Washington, D.C. area; and the data were analyzed by frequencies, percentages, and the chi-square test for statistical significance. The six research questions formulated to collect date were:

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[1] Florence D. Tucker, Employee Development Specialist, U.S. Department of the Interior, National Center, Mail Stop 634, Reston, VA 22092.

1. Will workers in age ranges of 40-49, 50-59, 60 and older,in technological career fields of geology, cartography, hydrology, engineering and physical science perceive their training needs to be significantly different?

2. Will the perceptions of training needs by older women in the five technological career fields be similar to the needs expressed by older men in these same career fields?

3. Will there be a difference in the perceptions of training needs by respondents in different organizational divisions?

4. How do older workers' perceptions of training needs for actual or anticipated performance compare with the perceived training needs of supervisors/managers for actual or anticipated performance?

5. Will there be a positive relationship between education level and interest in job related training?

6. Will there be differences in the perceptions of training needs between respondents in the fields of cartography, geology, engineering, physical science and hydrology?

Significance of the Study

Several factors indicated a need for this study. It was apparent that the proportion of older workers, 40 years of age and older, will be higher during the next decades than at any other time in this century. Projections are a population of 262,494,000 by the year 2000. Of this number, 15.5 percent (40,590,000) will be 60 years of age and over (White House Conference on Aging, 1981).

Irving Sobel, writing on the utilization of older workers, comments on the small proportions of workers over 45 in government retraining programs:

> Training authorities such as R.M. Belbin emphasize that much higher proportions, in fact, can be successfully trained. Other experts in the field of the economics of training...have shown that training programs of even a year's duration, at age 55 and beyond, "pay off." Other data would indicate that older workers have a much lower "turnover" rate and are much more likely than their younger counterparts to remain on the job in their trained field (Sobel, 1972).

The scarcity of available information about the utilization of older workers in technological fields and the lack of knowledge about their potential role in the workforce indicated that considerably more information must be gathered to gain an understanding of how to utilize the growing numbers of older workers.

Outcome of the Study

Analyses of the data showed that employees aged 40 to 49 preferred management training and the 60-and-older group showed a lower rate of interest in such training. There were no significant differences between perceived training needs of men and of women. The most preferred areas for training were computer technology and management. Supervisors and managers showed a preference for management training in their current positions and those who were not supervisors or managers preferred technology training. Current and advanced technology training was desired to compensate for obsolescence in technology. There were significant differences in perceptions of training needs by career fields: cartographers and hydrologists preferred management training, while geologists, engineers and physical scientists indicated a preference for computer and technical training areas.

Conclusions from the Study

Conclusions drawn from the study are that the USGS has a high percentage of employees satisfied with their career fields, that management should determine its computerized data needs for translation into training for the older workers, that management has a cadre of under-utilized senior employees who could be used more extensively through retraining and reassignment, and that management should emphasize retention and career expansion of these older workers.

Impact of the Findings

The findings have significance for other Federal agencies. Since these senior workers often find employment after retirement, efforts should be made to retain them and to apply their value to the organization. The institutional memory is lost with retirement of senior workers.

One agency anticipates the loss of 50% of their top management officials in the next five years. Labor force shortages will compel agencies to retrain and reassign this senior cadre into leadership positions.

Training Officers must have their roles identified in being proactive instead of re-active regarding older workers and their training programs. Trainers should be involved early on in long term organizational planning. We should establish requirements for using technology in training and design training for technology applications (for example; tele-conferencing, video communications, computer assisted instruction). Also, we should inform managers of the human resource development needs of older workers and assist them in dealing with these needs, through methods such as manager and executive training presentations.

Finally, data should be used from the USGS study on training needs of older workers to redefine retraining as outlined in the Civil Service Reform Act (CSRA) to include specifically, older workers.

This data could also be useful in designing effective training programs to meet the needs of both senior worker and organizations.

NOTE: The viewpoints expressed in this article do not necessarily represent those of the United States Department of the Interior.

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MEMORY AIDS USED BY YOUNG AND OLD ADULTS IN EVERY DAY LIFE

Craig D. Weidemann[1]

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine if older adults report using more external memory aids than do young adults. Twenty young (mean age = 21.75) and twenty older adults (mean age = 78.65) were given a list of twenty-five memory demanding everyday activities and were asked to respond to how they remembered to complete each activity. All responses were rated as reflecting the use of internal aids, external aids, or no aids. Older adults reported using more external aids than the young adults (p .05).

INTRODUCTION

It is commonly believed that older adults have faulty memories. In general, older adults do perform worse on laboratory tasks involving memory than young adults (Harker, Hartley, Finkle & Walsh, 1980). However, there are at least two aspects of the typical laboratory study that may hinder older adults' performance. First, the typical study has subjects learn and recall material of low meaningfulness. Second, most memory studies do not allow subjects to use notes or other external memory strategies.

Memory strategies can be separated into two domains: internal and external. Internal strategies are memory aids in which all efforts to remember are completed by the individual through manipulation of the "to be remembered information" within their own thought processes. Examples of internal aids include the creation of images, associations, or elaborations. Nickerson (1980) terms internal strategies, "internal alarms". Often to augment or replace failing internal alarms, individuals rely on the use of external memory strategies. External strategies or exosomatic aids, are memory methods which rely on the interaction of the mental processes of the individual and the manipulation of the environment to insure recall (Harris, 1980). External strategies include appointment books, making a list of things to do, and even asking someone to remind you of something.

Older adults may recall materials as well as young adults when allowed to use notes or other external aids. Without such aids, the young adults may perform better. The purpose of this study was to see if older adults relied more on external memory aids than young adults.

It is hypothesized that on everyday activities that there will be a significant difference on number of external memory aids used due to age. Older adults will report using more external strategies than young adults. This is based on the notion that older adults compensate for deficiencies in retrieval by relying more on external means to remember (Lachman & Lachman, 1980; Nickerson, 1980; Perlmutter, 1978). In reference to older adults' memory performance, Lachman et. al. stated: "if information is insufficient for retrieval or inference, such efforts may be truncated in favor of exosomatic sources (other people, books, and the live)" (p. 285). In fact Harris (1980) found that older adults used more external memory aids than young adults, but the mean age of his older sample was 49.

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[1] Craig D. Weidemann, Ph.D., Director of Continuing Education, Blue Ridge Community College, Box 80, Weyers Cave, Virginia 24486.

METHOD

Subjects

Twenty young and twenty older adults, with mean ages of 21.75 years (range = 19-25) and 78.65 (range = 70-88), respectively, served as subjects. The young adults, 6 males and 14 females, were students in Introductory Educational Psychology classes at the University of Georgia. The older adults, 3 males and 17 females, resided in a group living facility near the University. All of the subjects answered the same questions and performed the same tasks.

Variables

Variables under investigation included the following measures: external aid score, memory performance, self-rated memory ability, reported memory performance, educational level, and vocabulary ability.

External aid. Subjects were asked the following four questions about their performance on the most recent occurance of twenty five everyday activities (e.g., a close friend's or relative's birthday, to write a thank you note for a gift or dinner, etc.).

1. Tell me about a recent time you had to remember this activity?
2. How did you go about remembering this activity?
3. Did you successfully remember this activity?
4. How important was it for you to remember this activity?

The external aids score resulted from evaluating subjects' responses to the above question number two: how they went about remembering to complete the activity. A trained judge rated all the responses as reflecting the use of internal aids, external aids, or no memory aids. Subjects received one point for each response that was judged to show the use of an external memory aid. Each subject's external aid score equalled the sum of these points. Ebel's analysis of variance formula for determining reliability estimated the reliability of the scoring system (Ebel, 1972). An interrater reliability of .90 was established.

Memory performance. Assessment of memory performance involved having subjects complete nine everyday memory tasks. The number of tasks correctly completed comprised a subject's memory performance score.

Self-rated memory ability. Subject's responses on how they would rate their overall memory ability resulted in a measure of each subject's self-rated memory ability. Subjects rated their memory ability on a scale of one to ten, with one being poor and ten excellent.

Reported memory performance. The total number of affirmative responses to question three (did you successfully remember the activity?) across the twenty-five activities comprised the reported memory performance score.

Importance of activities. Responses to question four on importance of the twenty-five memory demanding activities were on a scale of one to five with one being not important and five being extremely important.

Education and vocabulary ability. A background questionnaire solicited the number of years of formal education. The Quick Word Test (Borgatta & Corsini, 1964) assessed the vocabulary ability of the subjects.

Procedure

Subjects were interviewed individually. The interviews ranged from 45 to 90 minutes.

RESULTS

Age Differences

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance assessed differences between the two age groups on each of the following measures: memory performance, external aid score, education, vocabulary, self-rated memory ability, reported memory performance, and importance of activities. After a significant effect, F(7, 32) = 5.68, p .01, was indicated by a multivariate criterion (Wilk's lambda), corresponding univariate analyses were performed. In support of the hypothesis, more external aids were used by older adults (M = 13.55) than by young adults (M = 11.00), p .05. In addition, older adults' vocabulary ability, and reported memory performances were significantly higher than the young adults. However, the young adults scored significantly higher on the Memory Performance Measure and possessed a higher level of education. No significant group differences were obtained for self-rated memory ability or average rating of importance of each activity.

Varities of aids.

The types of reported aids were classified as one of nine types of internal aids or eight types of external aids. These categories consisted of memory aids and cognitive strategies in the literature on memory. Establishing reliability for the scoring of this classification involved the same procedure as was used for the initial scoring of memory aids as internal, external, or not. Table I shows the frequency of each memory aid used by young and older adults.

TABLE I

Frequency of Memory Aid Types as a Function of Age

Aid Types	Group	
	Young	Old
Internal Aids		
Association	30	34
Mental Planning	43	20
Rehearsal/Memorization	45	7
Imagery	9	1
Clustering	6	0
Peg Method	2	1
Elaboration	24	31
Mental Retracing	9	1
Concentration	0	1
TOTAL	168	96
External Aids		
Calendar	17	14
Reminder/Appointment Card	6	9
Special Place	76	39
Relying on someone Else	28	13
Note	44	36
List	17	25
Another Event	31	77
Odd Location	1	2
TOTAL	220	271

Closer inspection of the internal aids reveals that older adults rely more on aids attaching meaningfulness to the "to be remembered information" than any other internal aids. The older adults reported using association (34 reports) and elaboration (31) more often than any other internal aids. Both the young (76 reports) and the older adults (89) reported using the external aid of keeping something in a special place as the most practiced external memory aid.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, older adults reported the use of more external memory aids than did young adults. This finding is consistent with the hypothesis that older adults compensate for loss of memory ability through reliance on external means to remember. Previous support for this hypothesis was in the form of theoretical speculation (Brown, 1975; Lachman et. al., 1980; Nickerson, 1980; and Perlmutter, 1978) and minimal empirical support (Harris, 1980).

Types of Memory Aids

The description of memory aids used by both groups shows that the range of aids reportedly used by older adults is as wide as the range reported by young adults. Previous studies have reported that older adults may have a limited repertoire of strategies that they use for acquiring or retaining new information. The results from this study appear to refute this finding.

Individual's reported strategies reflected their respective lifestyles. Young adults (mostly students) have less regular schedules than the older adults and thus rely heavily on another event to remind them. However, they are time-bound by school quarter's beginning and ending, exam dates, and assigned due dates for papers and thus rely on calendars. Also, because of living in groups, they can rely on friends to remind them. They use mental planning and notes to themselves to keep track of their numerous time commitments and activities. Finally, they use memorization and rehearsal a great deal because they learn a great deal of arbitrary information in the classroom and have much practice using it.

By contrast, older adults have more predictable lives and thus can rely on other events to remind them. They rely less on others to remind them because they live alone and don't want to ask friends to remind them because it looks bad. Also, their single small apartment is convenient to use as an external memory aid by placing things in special places to insure their recall. Finally, older adults use meaningful internal strategies, association and elaboration, because of wanting to deal with meaningful material.

Educational Implications

In reference to the older adults, there are two important educational implications. The first deals with the training of individuals to use specific types of memory aids. Cognitive strategy training studies have traditionally dealt with internal memory aids such as imagery, association, and internal mnemonic devices. From this study, it is clear that other types of aids are frequently used by older adults. Also, in these traditional cognitive training studies older adults learn to use new strategies effectively but do not transfer their use to other areas (Botwinick, 1978). This study showed that older adults display an expressed preference for, and use of, aids that match the needs of their lifestyle. Older adults prefer external memory aids. Thus, it appears that cognitive strategy training better suited for older adults would include instruction in the use of external aids to remember.

A second implication is for the use of external memory aids in the classroom. With the continued growth of the number of highly educated older adults, more and more older adults will be taking continuing education classes. Instructional methodologies for older adults should consider their unique learning needs and skills. The finding of older adults using more external memory aids compliments two of the recommendations made by Agrusso (1978) concerning the teaching of older adults. Argusso concluded a chapter on research on the memory of older adults with six recommendations for instructing older adults. Two of these recommendations are the following:

1. Auditory and visual augmentation procedures should be utilized for better retention;
2. Material to be recalled should be retained at maximum strength before new material is introduced (p. 87).

These recommendations can be addressed through the use of memory aids. Clear, concise handouts summarizing important material to be covered would augment visually the information being taught. Also, because the handout would provide the older adult with the information to be learned in hand; they could more confidently proceed to the next topic. The older adult would know that all material they are responsible for is on a handout to which they can refer later.

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RESOURCE UTILIZATION NETWORKS FOR NON-TRADITIONAL GROUPS

Nan Booth[1]
Eugene H. Owen

Abstract

Helping people design local environments which reflect their values is a major role for community developers. Another important function is to help people make informed decisions on the use of resources and services within their community. Essential to success is understanding the culture, structures, and networks operating in the community. This knowledge provides the practitioner with the insight needed to promote community goals and vitality. This paper discusses resource utilization networks and their implications to non-traditional groups. In addition to reviewing basic principles of diffusion and community change, the paper describes from the literature how socioeconomic factors impact on community networks. Three case studies from Maryland field research are used to illustrate major points.

INTRODUCTION

A variety of community development models have emerged in the literature over the past few decades. Being models, these approaches tend to treat communities in a stereotyped fashion. It is sometimes assumed that community change comes about through education and action arising from consensus. But, in many non-traditional audiences, this assumption is far from an accurate representation of the fragmented, heterogeneous or deeply divided community. Only a careful understanding of the community and integration into the existing community system will allow the CD practitioner to be effective. Community development professionals have often recognized the need to use these traditional models to solve particular problems. However, after the problem analysis is finished, the impact on the people is usually underplayed in favor of "getting the job done".

In our discussion of non-traditional groups we are concerned with non-metropolitan, non-middle class or non-white audiences. Specifically this paper will focus on research findings from studies of service use and information seeking patterns of low income blacks in an urban setting (Cherry Hill), low income blacks in a rural setting (Talbot County), and isolated white island residents (Smith Island).

CRITICAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE

With adults involved in learning efforts outside of the traditional classroom, educators have been interested in determining what types of information resources are utilized by adult learners. In 1968, Reiger and Anderson (1968: 171-174) concluded that "mass media is relied on substantially concerning a range of matters of importance in every day life." They also found books and other reading material to be important resources. In terms of human resources, the researchers said, "Personal or family friends and relatives are often mentioned indicating a secondary but significant type of source...". Their data indicated that persons with less education tend to select from the least number of potential sources of information on any topic. As a result of their findings, Reiger and Anderson concluded, "The public adult education, Extension and local college facilities are relatively inconsequential sources of information concerning central matters of importance in the daily lives of the local participants."

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[1] Nan Booth, Community Resource Development Specialist, University of Maryland, College Park and Eugene H. Owen, Research Associate, Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742.

In developing his theory about the diffusion of innovations, Rogers (1969, 1971) said individuals can be categorized with respect to how soon they adopt the innovation. He developed five categories: early adopters, early majority, majority, late majority, and laggards. According to Rogers' theory, the early adopters are more likely to be actively involved in a wide variety and scope of organizations. They also tend to rely more on television, radio, and the printed word. In contrast to the early adopters, the late majority and laggards are usually least involved in organizations. Less reliant on mass media, the late majority and laggards use friends and neighbors as information sources. (In terms of this study, Rogers would classify the population as laggards.)

After an intensive review of literature, Havelock (1969: Chap 10-38) concluded "individuals in different adopter categories differ in the types of information sources to which they turn and (differ) on the roles which they play in the transmission of information." His review indicated the written word was most effective when directed towards people of high educational attainment and socio-economic level. He felt television was best when used in combination with more personal methods (1969: Chap 9: 4-7).

Rothman (1974: 448) reached similar conclusions to Rogers and Havelock. He concluded:

> Different modes of communication are used by different adopters. Relatively early adopters tend to use mass media information sources whereas later adopters tend to use face-to-face information sources.

Rothman felt socio-economic status was directly related to adopter categories.

Over half the blue collared families in Michigan in the Bobbitt and Paolucci study (1975: 112) identified a trusted expert for help with a self-directed learning project. Knowledge about the expert, convenience, being close to home, and not charging a fee were considered important reasons for selecting an expert by over 17 percent of the families. It was also found mass media resources were extensively used for home learning projects of the families.

Over half the Jamaican men in Field's study (1977) relied on groups as learning resources. Individual help either through an expert or a friend was listed as the most frequently used resource by about one third of the men.

This review of literature indicates socio-economic status is an important factor affecting an adult's choice of resources. Taken as a whole, adults seem to most frequently select friends and family, mass media, printed material, and experts as learning resources.

CASE EXAMPLES

A. Cherry Hill

In 1979, a study to assess the learning efforts of low income urban adults was undertaken in Baltimore, Maryland. A second purpose of the study was to describe the information resource utilization patterns of this population. The study was non-experimental in design and utilized a semi-structured interview schedule. A random sample of 119 adult residents of Cherry Hill, the largest public housing development in Baltimore was selected for interviews. In terms of resource utilization, three specific areas were described to solicit responses. They were parenting, job training and budgeting.

Data indicate residents relied most heavily on their informal network. Mothers, friends and neighbors were the most frequently mentioned resources. For the most part, residents perceived different types of resources as being helpful in the three areas.

B. Talbot County

During the fall of 1976 and spring of 1977, an extensive study of the human services delivery system was carried out in Talbot County, a rural county on Maryland's Eastern Shore. Interviews were conducted with personnel from all of the agencies delivering human services as well as a randomly selected sample of residents in the county. In addition intensive interviews were conducted with consumers of services who self-selected to be interviewed. In total, 248 residents were asked about their knowledge of use of and satisfaction with services provided by 33 agencies in twelve broad problem areas. Of the 45 self-selected consumers of services, most has a history of using services from more than one of the agencies in the county.

The overall level and knowledge of agencies providing among residents was low and most frequently they would turn to personal (family, friends or church) resources for help with their problems. For certain problems, particularly education of children, this trend was not the case and more institutionalized service providers (such as the public school system) were listed as the resource to be used. In interviews with black consumers of services, the pattern of personal resource networking was striking in that all those interviewed referred to either clergy or to community activists as being the contact point with the services delivery system. This community activist linkage was formalized by the county government by creating an agency for this person to use as a base in providing services and referring black residents to other agencies in the system.

C. Smith Island

Smith Island is a small isolated island in the Chesapeake Bay on which approximately 750 people live in three different communities. During the winter of 1976-78 a library needs assessment was undertaken by conducting a house to house survey of all households on the island. Numerous questions were asked about all types of services used as well as information sources in preparation for the establishment of a library on the island. Due to the isolated nature of the island, the extended family nature of the communities and the primacy of the Methodist Church as the only governing body, it is not surprising that family,friends and the clergy were almost exclusively cited as the sources of information about all problem areas. Since the island tended to be self-sufficient economically and socially, they tended to be very suspicious of "outside" influences. However, adults on the island did feel that the "youngsters" could benefit from the library and its connections to information sources on the mainland but were skeptical of its usefulness to themselves. They tended to regard the library as a repository of books rather than a system of information retrieval and felt that most information needed by the community was either available from friends or neighbors or from communication with God through worship in the Church. This is not to say the Smith Islanders are resistant to material change, but just that they rely heavily on community opinion and resources as informational and decision making bases.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Non-traditional groups, as we define them here, (i.e. low income black people, urban and rural, and isolated island residents) have "traditional" sources of information and services, (i.e. family, friends and church organizations). These groups are atypical of white middle class adults living in metropolitan and non-metropolitan America. Therefore, methods of communication as well as assumptions about information gathering behavior and the role of experts in disseminating information must be carefully considered. Change agents/educators must be aware of individual subcultures that they work with and particularly the influentials in a community in order for their efforts to be effective. Innovative teaching methods which appeal to "modern", "scientific" authorities are likely to go unheeded, except in thore subject areas where "outsiders" have a monopoly on information (e.g. job information and public education for children). In most other service and information areas the change agent/educator needs to identify the indigenous network of influentials in these non-traditional groups and work with and through these people to deliver his/her information or service.

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PLANT CLOSINGS, JOB LOSS AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Paula Kline[1]

Abstract

The Learner's Compass, an adult education information and referral service, in cooperation with the Greater New Haven Central Labor Council, received a two year grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education to develop a community response to plant closings and unemployment. A broad base of activities was provided through three project components: 1) direct assistance to unemployed workers and families; 2) programs aimed at educators, union leaders and service providers who themselves attempt to assist the displaced worker; and 3) a public/ community education campaign to increase the awareness of the community at large regarding the impact of plant closings on the social, economic and political life of the area. This paper reviews the project and its implications for educators and other community providers.

THE PROBLEM

Whether described as corporate exodus, economic dislocation, capital flight, corporate mobility, or simply runaway shops, plant closings devastate the workers and communities they leave behind. Often identified as a regional problem, largely affecting the traditional industrial states, plant closings are not a uniquely Northeast syndrome. The corporate exodus from the more industrial states to the South or overseas to avoid higher labor costs, represents but one of the calculated decisions behind massive plant closings all over the country. The impetus behind many closings often has little to do with local conditions, reflecting instead, corporate decisions not to re-invest in local modernization efforts in order to re-direct profits of a subsidiary to the parent firm for re-allocation according to other priorities.

The Economic Impact

Nationally, the problem may be understood in terms of social statistics which depersonalize the immediate impact of plant closings on the lives of millions of Americans every year. Economic analyses have isolated high unemployment rates, lower corporate tax receipts, and fiscal crises for local governments as major outcomes of plant closings. Although estimates vary, between 1969 and 1976, some 15.1 million workers lost their jobs due to major layoffs and plant closings. Locally, this staggering figure takes on heightened meaning. The loss of every job and every workers income means the additional loss of thousands of dollars worth of personal income, bank deposits, retail sales, to say nothing of the actual closing of related businesses and the dismissal of yet more workers. It does not take long for a stark picture of the economic situation in many communities to emerge.

New Haven, the site for The Plant Closing Project, funded by the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (1981-1983), is not atypical of many communities in New England and elsewhere which have been hard hit by plant closings. A city of some 130,000, New Haven has traditionally relied on heavy industry for its economic base. In the last

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[1] Paula Kline, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Doctoral Student. Director, The Learner's Compass Inc., 965 Quinnipiac Ave. New Haven CT 06513.

10 years, New Haven alone has lost almost 40% of its manufacturing base.

The effects of such closings may be best illustrated by a recent example. Olin Corporation, Winchester Division (manufacturer of fine sporting rifles) occupies a 67 acre area in one of New Haven's neighborhoods. For 10 years, Olin Winchester (once the largest manufacturer in the city) has been phasing out of its New Haven works. Aside from the loss of over 2,000 jobs, the phase out has meant financial losses for other local businesses as well: an estimated $15 million was lost by firms which traditionally provided Olin with materials. The phasing out of the works has also meant the reduction of a thriving neighborhood to an unsafe, economically unstable one. What were formerly stable streets with neat homes (primarily owner occupied) and small mom and pop stores, are now streets punctuated by high crime rates, fires, and housing abandonment. The city, not unaware of the social service needs of the neighborhood, has been hard pressed to respond adequately, given a shrinking tax base and the high costs of incentive packages offered to companies to stay or relocate to already abandoned plants. To the Winchester example we may add those of U.S. Steel, Seamless Rubber, Seamco., Gant, Pond Lily, Federal Paper Board, Uniroyal and many others, accounting for the loss of many thousand jobs.

The Social Impact

Although this portrayal may be dismal, the plight of the individual worker and his or her family is grimmer still. For the individual who finds his or her entire future in jeopardy, the plant closing represents a major life crisis. Current research on the adult response to job loss testifies to the pernicious personal and social consequences of plant closings. Job insecurity is ranked just after death of relatives and divorce as the most stressful life event. It is not surprising then, that studies concerned with the physical health of soon to be or currently unemployed workers have found high correlations between job loss and illness. A study prepared by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (1977) reported that workers who had lost their jobs "suffered a greater likelihood of heart disease, peptic ulcer, and gout, as well as increases in arthritis and hypertension."

Being laid off is more than just hazardous to your health, however. It may disrupt an individual's ability to function in family and community settings as well. Unemployment has been correlated with increases in wife battering and child abuse. Many marriages falter under the stress of unemployment: 75% of men who remained unemployed 9 months or longer in one study faced divorce proceedings (Peterson, 1971). Increases in alcoholism, drug abuse, and crime consistently follow on the heels of increases in unemployment. Perhaps the tragedy of job loss is best reflected in the staggering suicide rate for terminated workers. The same National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health cited earlier reports it to be 30 times that of the general population. In the last two months of 1974, the suicide rate in Detroit doubled over that of the 1973 rate after massive layoffs in the auto industry

Re-employment is unquestionably the top priority for all unemployed workers — but finding that new job, relocating or retraining will not prove easy for a majority of adults confronting job loss due to plant closings (Turner and Whitaker, 1973). A 1971 report suggests that 20% of middle aged men who become unemployed will still be jobless a year later (Peterson, 1971). Tragically the high incidence of mental and physical health disorders found in these workers will, over time, impede their possibilities for regaining personal, social and economic stability.

Other barriers keep the victims of plant closings from easy re-entry into the labor force. Among them are the barriers of age (the average age of displaced workers at many plants is 55), lack of skills in new industries, lack of adequate and accesible retraining possibilities, and lack of experience in seeking work or coping with the stigma and hardships of unemployment itself.

Despite the rise in unemployment and the dramatic decline of many communities little has been done to mediate the effects of closings on either the workers or the communities in which they live. In fact, the enormity of the problems which result from closings have kept communities from attempting a systematic, organized response. The Plant Closing Project in many respects, is an effort to create such a community response through a worker and community education approach to the problem.

ALTERNATIVES TO DESPAIR

In 1981, The Learner's Compass (an adult education information and referral service), in cooperation with the Greater New Haven Central Labor Council, launched a two year program which tried to address the educational needs created by job loss. The objectives set by the Plant Closing Project were intended to focus on the political, social and economic consequences of plant closings. We attempted to analyze the difficulties created by sudden job loss not only from the point of view of the displaced worker, but from the standpoint of the agencies and organizations which might try to serve him, as well as that of the general public, which is either indifferent to, or unaware of, the ripple effects of job loss on the entire community. With this in mind we targeted three objectives, each reflecting a constituency we hoped to reach. They were to:
1. assist the displaced worker and enhance his or her opportunities for re-employment, 2. stimulate the development of educational services to help workers and their families re-establish their economic independence, and 3. increase public awareness of the social, political and economic nature of plant closings. Three project components emerged focusing in turn upon the displaced worker, the social service provider, union official and educator, amd the general public.

Project Description

Component 1: The Displaced Worker

Activities in this area involved the development of an information clearinghouse on employment, education and training resources. While this information was not without its uses, we found that local economic projections were at best inaccurate, that those training programs available did not train for the jobs which the projections indicated would be fruitful, and that the quality of the training and placement services was woefully disappointing. For many who would have wished to have even a poor training experience, the costs of most programs were prohibitively high. In place of traditional information sources, therefore, we developed our own series of information sheets entitled, If You Lose Your Job, which treat a wide variety of topics related to coping with unemployment and suggest concrete actions and resources available locally.

Direct work with displaced workers took two forms. The first placed an emphasis on displaced women workers. In both running and planning this program, we attempted to involve unemployed women workers. In cooperation with a local health clinic we organized a 12 week facilitators training workshop series. The purpose of the series was to teach group facilitation skills, to plan, organize and run programs for displaced women workers, to develop materials for use by other groups, and to encourage the development of a self help/mutual support approach to solving some of the problems associated with unemployment. Out of this series grew three specific programs for women needing retraining, needing job search skills, and assistance in starting small businesses and cooperatives. These were a five session program (conducted in English and Spanish) for 20 women requiring further education or training in order to return to work, a five session re-employment orientation workshop series for 15 women, and an all day conference, "The Enterprising Woman" for over 70 local women interested in running small businesses and selling products they themselves had produced.

Through our experience with the women's programs and others discussed later, we felt that while helpful, the approach of simply equipping the unemployed with skills required for jobs, would not ultimately alter the situation as long as so few jobs existed and no organized voice spoke out for the creation of jobs or the defense of a decent standard of living during periods of unemployment. Our second approach, therefore, focused on the organization of a Council for Unemployed Workers to be based at the local central labor council.

Our first step was to identify a core group of unemployed to get the Council off the ground. Each participant in the founding group attended a five day training program which offered workshops on negotiating, advocacy skills, local resource development, referrals, and program planning. Out of the week training, three acting committees emerged: health, housing and utilities and the unemployed should pay less committees. The health committee has begun an investigation of what the costs of a group insurance policy would be for the unemployed, and what services are available to the unemployed at local health facilities. The housing and utilities committee has negotiated with gas and electric companies around payment problems of the unemployed and worked with a local coalition to limit evictions and mortgage foreclosures. It has offered workshops on legal rights and advocacy on all housing issues. The unemployed should pay less committee approached local merchants to request discounts for unemployed Council members. Doctors and dentists were also recruited. The discount program has been successful in obtaining discounts which range from 10 to 30 percent from two dozen doctors, dentists and businesses.

In addition to committee work, members of the Council set up an information table on a weekly basis at the unemployment compensation office. Here, they sign up new members, hand out the Project's printed materials, and make referrals. The central labor council has provided office space two days a week as well as a meeting space for occasional workshops and bi-monthly potluck suppers. The potluck suppers serve the social function of bringing people together along with the practical function of a distribution point for food from the local food bank.

Component 2: Helping the Helpers

During the course of the two year project, we sponsored a two day conference for providers on the problems of plant closings, which was followed by a one day conference for providers and church representatives. The first covered the response of individuals and families to job loss, reviewed actions taken by different communities and conducted a simulation of a closing. The second conference focused on four approaches to helping the unemployed: legislative, family services, church assistance, and working through unemployed groups. In addition to the two conferences, we offered in-service staff training sessions to local schools, agencies,and unions, which offered the conference material in abbreviated form.

Component 3: Community Education

In this area we offered a series of opportunities for public exposure, discussion and debate on the issue of plant closings. Our first effort was an all day state wide conference in January 1982 for nearly 200 union and community activists on the problem of plant closings in Connecticut. We also produced a series of media programs which included: 1. a 20-minute slide tape on plant closings, 2. five one-hour live radio roundtable debates on the local economy, 3. seven radio programs, either live, call-in or pre-recorded on local stations, 4. four public lectures on various aspects of work and employment co-sponsored by the Connecticut Humanities Counsil, and 5. articles in local papers and occasional press conferences.

ISSUES IN ORGANIZING A COMMUNITY RESPONSE

In each component area, we faced obstacles which made painfully clear why, in general, so little is done to address the problems of the unemployed. First, the unemployed themselves are often ignorant of resources available to them or hesitant to use them even when they do know of them because of the stigma attached to unemployment. While the causes of job loss are rarely related to individual performance, most workers will blame themselves for the closing or the layoff. This sense of failure and shame inhibits the anger which could be constructively channeled into collective action in defense of the rights of the unemployed for retraining, jobs, and adequate income during unemployment. In addition, many unemployed people were never active in community groups or public affairs. The transition, therefore, to involvement in an advocacy group is far from smooth or self-evident. Indeed, it is questionable whether a group based on a temporary (however permanent it may seem) condition can sustain an organizational structure over any length of time. Unemployment is an isolating, stigmatized status from which all who can escape do so as soon as possible. We found the self/peer advocacy approach effective short run, but it is limited insofar as it does not address the more fundamental reasons behind the need for such groups — that is to say the lack of jobs and appropriate, affordable training.

These obstacles, although serious, can be overcome with commitment and time. A more immediate solution to some of the causes and consequences of unemployment rest with educators and local development projects. We found that the role of education in addressing these pressing economic issues was both circumscribed and restrained. Training programs and schools seeking profits were loathe to develop programs for an impoverished clientele. Initiatives to design programs which were short term, flexible and adapted to the experience of the adult worker were non-existent. Indeed little effort has been made to even attract the unemployed worker as a student. The unemployed tend to be unaware of educational opportunities, frightened of re-entering a school setting and in many other respects resemble other non-traditional students.

To begin to meet the educational and economic needs of the worker and the community, local schools must begin to offer a wider variety of short courses which will provide not only job training skills, but strategies for coping with unemployment as well. Such strategies would include not just the immediate issues of financial management, job search skills and the like, but training in starting and operating small businesses, cooperatives and skills exchanges. Publicly financed schools in particular must aggressively seek out relations with local businesses in order to offer on the job training, internships and apprenticeships for adults changing careers. Schools need also consider developing more intimate ties with local unions in order to recruit skilled workers whose jobs are gone for good because of shifts in the economy. Identifying training areas is obviously a critical first step, but recruiting the unemployed for new programs will not be an easy task. If unprovided, the costs of transportation, materials, tools, child care and tuition can and will be prohibitive.

In developing educational programs for the unemployed, educators must be careful to avoid giving the worker the impression that somehow the individual is solely responsible for changing his economic status. Indeed, just as a plant closing is out of the hands of the workers, so too is the development of new jobs and appropriate training. Thus, educational efforts should go beyond simple training schemes to embrace efforts at community development based on the community's needs. The role of education is an essential one only when it considers the question of economic and not just individual solutions. That so few educators are involved in communty development suggests how desperately we need to extend our vision of their role.

Information on the Plant Closing Project and a publications list of materials is available by writing The Plant Closing Project 965 Quinnipiac Ave. New Haven CT 06513.

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COMMUNITY EDUCATION IN MARYLAND:
GAUGING THE RESULTS

Clare C. McNiff[1]
Thomas Palardy

Abstract

An "impact study" of community education programs supported by the Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) is being conducted by the Regional Education Service Agency of Appalachian Maryland (RESA) over a six month period ending March 1, 1984. This research is intended to assess the validity of the hypothesis -"MSDE - sponsored community education programs have made a positive impact upon Maryland's schools and neighborhoods." This sytematic investigation of three separate community education programs is needed to provide a base for future program planning in the state. While quantitative data citing numbers of people served and numbers of services provided through community education programs is collected annually by Maryland State Department of Education program specialists, there has been limited information available on the impact of these services. The results of this study will be used as a resource by MSDE staff for program planning and will be distributed to local program administrators.

INTRODUCTION

This report provides preliminary information on the progress of a six month study of MSDE-sponsored community education programs. Copies of the final report will be available after March 1, 1984 from MSDE. Results of this study will be used as part of a needs assessment for planning community education programs for 1985 through 1987.

PROGRAM DEFINITION

In Maryland, community education programming is designed to build and maintain effective partnerships between the school and the community. These partnerships are strengthened by encouraging active citizen participation in the identification and evaluation of programs and services, by fostering extensive community use of school facilities, and by coordinating services available by public and private agencies to meet educational, recreational, vocational, and cultural needs of the community. Three community education programs are being reviewed to assess their impact on school-community partnerships in the state.

School Community Centers (SCCP)

The first of these programs, SCHOOL-COMMUNITY CENTERS (SCCP), has been operational since 1971. It provides state funds and support services to each of Maryland's 24 local boards of education and departments of parks and recreation to keep schools open beyond regular hours for use by youth (ages 5-20) interested in recreational and supplementary educational activities.

Volunteer Services Program (VSP)

The second program, VOLUNTEER SERVICES, also is statewide. It supports the activities of local school system coordinators who involve private citizens to augment the regular school program. Volunteers assist teachers, coaches, cafeterial personnel, and other school staff. Their activities include tutoring, reading to students, chaperoning, recordkeeping, and other auxiliary services.

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[1] Clare C. McNiff, Section Chief, Maryland State Department of Education, 200 West Baltimore St., Baltimore, MD 21201. Thomas Palardy, Frostburg State College, Frostburg, MD 21532.

Multi-Service Community Center (MSCC)

MULTI-SERVICE COMMUNITY CENTERS (MSCC), are located in nine school systems in Maryland. They utilize schools and other facilities where in and out-of-school youth and adults can receive assistance in acquiring a wide variety of education, vocational, employment and recreational services. Sample activities include: referral to Adult Basic and Adult General Education classes, GED testing, tutoring services, and cooperative extension classes; sponsorship of career information and employability skills development workshops; coordination with Jobs Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and Employment Services agencies; and referrals to SCCP and Parks and Recreation programs and other agencies.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research is being conducted to assess the validity of the hypothesis - "MSDE-sponsored community education programs have made a positive impact upon Maryland's schools and neighborhoods." The study includes, but is not limited to, collection of data addressing the following questions:

1. Are school administrators and teachers supportive of expanded use of schools for MSDE-sponsored community education program? If yes, how? What results/benefits? If no, why not? What barriers/problems?

2. Do MSDE-sponsored community education programs link with other community based organizations and agencies? If so, what are the results of these collaborations?

3. Have MSDE-sponsored community education programs affected the schools educational goals and policies? If so, how?

METHODOLOGY

This project involves collection of data from at least 150 persons affiliated with community education in the 24 LEAs. They include program directors and support staff. Additional persons from whom information is being collected are principals, teachers, local school board members, pupil personnel service directors, representatives of related community agencies and organizations.

Data collection procedures used in this project include:

a. Selected on-site visits and interviews.
b. Selected telephone interviews.
c. Review of program proposals, annual reports, financial reports, internal evaluations, and other pertinent written materials.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

Perceptions of the programs:

- Persons interviewed report a high level of satisfaction with the community education programs. The vast majority of the programs work well. They are managed efficiently and operate with a minimum amount of administrative costs, maximizing the use of funds for direct services.

- The programs provide services based on needs assessments which are conducted regularly by program administrators. Local community advisory groups also provide input for district level program development. For example, where communities noted a need for after-school services to children who have no adults in the home between 3 p.m. and 5 p.m., latch-key survival skill classes are being provided with instruction in preparing nutritious snacks, handling fears about being alone, care of younger siblings, and other safety-related concerns. In some systems, job information and referral services are provided; also drop-in reading centers in schools are being established to enhance students' interest and enjoyment in reading.

- Community education programs generally are well attended. Reasons include: community residents have an opportunity to express specific program interests; programs fill a void in some geographical areas which have limited supervised leisure-time experiences; and attention has been given by local program managers to make program activities attractive to participants. In many instances, class size has had to be limited to assure the availability of sufficient materials, to provide for an appropriate leader/participant ratio, and to assure safety factors for all participants.

- Persons interviewed report that community education programs provide equal opportunity of access to students. Rural areas have used the program to expand available community services. Those in need of basic skills have free services and/or tutoring available. In addition, there have been obvious attempts to locate the services in a cross-section of the community.

- Many persons inteviewed express the opinion that these programs nurtured a "sense of community" in that schools where these community education services are offered provide a consistently accessible site for community activity. This was the case in both highly mobile and stable communities.

- It was reported that little or no vandalism occured in schools with increased building occupancy and supervision. A result has been increased community regard for the school building as community owned property.

- In several systems, children who attend school outside of their immediate neighborhood are unable to participate in community education activities which begin in the early afternoon (which is a prime time for recreational, tutoring, and education services - especially for younger children).

Administration and Teacher Support

- Superintendents and program supervisors are very supportive. They approve the framework for these programs, develop the linkages with community agencies, and endorse programs initiatives. Administrators view these programs as needed undertakings and as public relations assets.

- Many principals arrange for building usage, and in some cases, schedule rooms, arrange for the building maintenance, and oversee programs. Although this involvement is voluntary for these principals, the trade-offs in public relations and student involvement are perceived as worth the effort. Furthermore, principals often involve themselves in conducting some of the programs' activities.

- Teacher support for the programs is evident. Classrooms and often classroom materials are used in the programs, but once again the teachers benefit. Their students receive needed services — sometimes in basic skills. Teachers use volunteers. In addition, teachers are often involved in the SCCP and the MSCC programs.

Linkages with Community

- The SCCP program has been instrumental throughout the state in fostering a closer relationship between park and recreation departments and public schools. Park and recreation departments make extensive use of school facilities and, in most counties, joint use agreements have been approved. This use of schools is such a boom to park and recreation departments that without the program much of their current services would be eliminated.

- Other community organizations (scouting, sport teams, dance clubs) have found that the schools are more receptive to building usage since the establishment of these community education programs.

- The MSCC programs in the state constantly search for information from other community agencies including private industry, local government, libraries, community colleges, etc. to monitor their own services and to provide for community needs. The information is used by all parties to avoid duplication and to identify gaps in services and to plan accordingly.

Involvement of People/Clients

- Community education advisory groups recommend services and programs. As communities differ, services and programs differ.

- Students also give input about programs although their presence on advisory groups is less evident.

- Volunteers seem to be more actively recruited now as compared to an earlier period, namely, five years ago. They also seem to be more active.

- Both the SCCP and the MSCC programs generate volunteerism although the majority of volunteers are supporting the K-12 instructional program.

Effect Upon Educational Policies:

- Use of school buildings after hours and during summers and the use of buildings by others, most notably recreation departments, is a major change in educational policy.

- The schools also allow the use of equipment and materials. Most of those arrangements are informal and based upon the cooperative relationship which exists between school and community education staff as a result of these programs.

- Changes in curriculum within the school day are not directly in evidence. However, needed academic services such as math enrichment, tutoring in basic skills, and art and music classes, are part of these programs and changes are possible.

Preliminary Suggestions and Recommendations

- These MSDE-sponsored community education programs should be recognized for the scope and quality of services. To date those services have not received media exposure at a level commensurate with other state programs.

- Increased local publicity is still a need. Although participation level is satisfactory, the potential for increased community support of public education is great.

- The Maryland State Department of Education has provided needed support, monitoring, evaluation, and technical assistance. There is a good balance between local autonomy and state guidance. This balance should continue.

- Periodic revision of the guidelines with appropriate input from all levels of interest is needed. This is to occur in 1984 for the SCCP.

- Community involvement in advisory councils must continue. This involvement is sometimes a challenge to LEAs, but the state should hold firm on this requirement.

- The regional meetings, which the state sponsors for community education programs should be continued - at these meetings information and program possibilities are shared. Participants gained technical information, shared programming options, and developed personally as community leaders.

- An increase in funding for the programs should be considered. In some instances need is greater than the programs capacity to deliver due to spiraling inflation of utility costs, cost of salaries and supplies. Waiting lists for services are in evidence in some systems.

Implications for Practice

- All of the community programs should be disseminated as widely as possible. They are worthy models for study by other states who want to expand community education services.

- More is being asked of the schools — higher standards, more homework, and a longer school day. Since community education programs are already addressing some of these concerns, the input of community education staff could be useful in program planning and implementation at the K-12 level.

- Any search for partnerships in education must be encouraged. Funding for public schools is always an issue. Partnerships can help reduce the pricetag of services as well as provide needed communication.

- Personnel at the Maryland State Department of Education must continue to make the investment in keeping themselves expert in the field of community education. Local administrators depend on their direction and technical assistance.

- Since these programs have voluntary participation, efforts have been made to establish an inviting atmosphere and to be cognizant of motivation factors. In this setting where grades and competition are not factors, many participants do very well. School personnel may be enriched by observing how students have benefited from these community education programs.

** At this writing, the study is still in progress. Preliminary findings are subject to change contingent upon receipt of additional data. It is possible that other findings, suggestions, recommendations, implications for practice will be added to the final report.

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SUMMATIVE SCALES FOR MEASURING ATTITUDES TOWARD COMMUNITY SATISFACTION

Allen B. Moore[1]

Abstract

Results of these surveys indicate that paper and pencil questionnaire procedures can be successfully adapted to random digit dialing telephone interview methods. Further, the surveys produced a reliable instrument for measuring attitudes about how residents perceive their communities as a place to live.

INTRODUCTION

Attempts at assessing satisfaction toward community issues has been the focus of a number of studies. Davies (1945) sought to measure social ambience, physiological and demographic characteristics. Fessler (1952) was interested in community solidarity. Jesser (1967) applied the community satisfaction construct to comparison of rural communities in Michigan. Campbell, Converse and Rogers (1976) used a cross-sectional and longitudinal design to relate community satisfaction and social change. The theme of this and other community satisfaction research is the problem of developing and using reliable assessment tools which can translate the concept of community satisfaction into a measurable construct. Related to the assessment issue is the discussion about appropriate models (Marans and Rogers, 1975) for studying communities. Warren (1970) and Deseran (1978) are also concerned about reliable predictors (i.e., extrinsic and intrinsic) which may be associated with strategies for studying communities.

PURPOSE

This paper presents the results of two community surveys which had as the principal focus investigation of community satisfaction through application of psychometric scaling principles coupled with a telephone survey research design (Cummings, 1979). The objective was to develop summative scales which provide reliable measures of community satisfaction as a single construct.

METHODS

The data presented are the result of a multi-year program of research designed to identify those community issues related to the attractiveness, growth, and development of rural and urban centers in Georgia. The study design has applied economic prediction models, community cohesion models (i.e., community leadership development) on a wide range of constructs related to community. The present research reflects an attempt to systematically collect subjective information from Georgia residents regarding attitudes, opinions and perceptions they hold toward their community as a place to live.

The research design stipulated: construction of a series of summative scales measuring community satisfaction and its possible predictors; developing a strategy for securing multiple responses in a telephone survey format; and, application of the survey instrument to a randomly drawn sample of Georgia residents. This research stragegy, therefore, proposed an innovative attempt to apply survey research methods more common to pen and paper instruments to the protocols and limitations common to telephone surveys (Klecka and Tuchfarber, 1978). In this regard, two objectives were sought. First, the validation of a priori summative scales, and second, the use of nondichotomous response categories. Summative scales were chosen because of their greater reliability and nondichotomous response categories were chosen because of a desire to maximize variability in the intensity of feelings respondents held toward each of the core concepts.

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[1] Allen B. Moore, Associate Professor, joint staffed with the Institute of Community and Area Development and the Department of Adult Education, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602.

Six core concepts were chosen from a larger set of issues related to community by a panel composed of individuals actively engaged in community research and the application of technical assistance to communities in the area of community development, leadership development, and industrialization. These core concepts included: concern for crime, concern for the availability of jobs, concern for access to adequate health care, concern for available housing, satisfaction with public education, and satisfaction with community.

While it is recognized that many other variables are important to concepts of community satisfaction, it was necessary to limit the research design to a statewide sampling plan which was consistent with the desire to use summative scaling principles in a telephone survey data collection mode (Cummings, 1979).

Scaling Procedures

The scaling principles employed in the study were primarily based on the scaling techniques of Scott (1968) and were designed to assess the direction and intensity of respondents' opinion toward each of the six concepts being measured. Twenty-four items were used to create six scales. Each scale was constructed to measure an independent dimension of the community context. Each scale then reflected a core concept which was hypothesized to have current salience to respondents in the survey. The items included in each of the six scales were written with the objective of capturing a different dimension of the core concept reflected in the scale.

Telephone Interview Procedures

In order to be responsive to the limitations of telephone survey methods which typically elicit dichotomous responses, a two phrase questioning protocol was employed. Respondents were first read the statement and were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed. Once respondent agreement or disagreement was established, the interviewer asked the degree or intensity of the respondents' opinion using a four point scale.

Study Sample

The survey was administered to two randomly selected samples of adults residing in Georgia. In 1982 the sample size was 1000 and in 1983 the sample drawn at random was 709. Using a random digit dialing procedure, telephone numbers were drawn, and phone calls were made utilizing as many as six callbacks to gather data.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the two samples are similar to Georgia census (1980) data regarding sex (i.e., slightly more females than males) and residence location in Georgia (i.e., approximately two-thirds of the population resides in the Northern part of the state). Compared to census data (1980) both the 1982 and 1983 slightly under-represents (i.e., by 5 to 8 percent) the number of non-whites in Georgia.

Scale Reliabilities

Cronback (1951) alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for each of the scales. A priori criterion for an acceptable alpha coefficient was set at a minimum of .56 and a maximum of .85. This provides for a minimum theoretical validity of .75 (i.e., the square root of minimum reliability coefficient) and reduces item redundancy (as indicated alpha coefficients) greater than .85 (Martuza, 1979, p. 142).

Reliability coefficients for each scale in surveys ranged from a low of .52 for housing to a high of .75 for health care in 1982 and from a low of .54 for housing to a high of .76 for crime in the 1983 survey. Coefficients for each scale included crime (.73 in 1982, .76 in 1983), jobs (.67 and .64), health care (.75 and .70), housing (.52 and .54), public education (.62 and .63) and community satisfaction (.71 and .68). All but the housing scale meets the a priori criteria of .56. The reasonably strong coefficient alphas indicate that the survey produced 5 acceptable and reliable measures of community concern.

Further analyses (Whorton and Moore, in press) were conducted for the 1982 survey data using the Theta (Armor, 1974) coefficient. By using a combination of principal components factor analysis and traditional scaling procedures, it was possible to obtain improved indicators of reliability for 4 (Crime, Jobs, Health and Community Satisfaction) of the community scales. Factor analysis, as it is used in the Theta coefficient procedures, takes into account the contribution (if any) of other scale items to the hypothesized community scales.

DISCUSSION

Results from the two community surveys represents a successful attempt (1982) and a replication (1983) of these procedures to adapt pen and paper survey methods to the protocols and limitations of telephone surveys. Further, these results demonstrate the utility of dichotomous response categories to assess a wide range of attitudes about community issues.

Limitations of these procedures are found in trying to achieve maximum reliability at the expense of tapping only a few issues in a single telephone interview. The summative scaling procedure is a viable option when seeking respondent opinions about community issues that are currently receiving attention in the news media and are being discussed by public officials. A distinct advantage of using summative scales is that it reduces the likelihood of being perceived as a referendum and improves the quality of the data by generating opinions which have internal consistency across multiple items.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

Summative scales are relatively easy to develop (Scott, 1968) and they can be incorporated into a telephone interview format (Frey, 1982) which can be implemented conveniently. Adaptations of summative scale procedures which include indicators of continuing education needs have been reported by Aslanian and Brickell (1980).

Program planners could apply summative scale techniques to assess attitudes toward continuing education issues for such groups as former participants, current participants, employers and the general public. In addition, telephone interviewing could be conducted by planners and staff to gather information about the need for new programs and to evaluate participation in previous or current programs. Besides being a reliable method of data collection, the basic arguments for using telephone interviewing are the elements of immediate feedback to planners and the idea of being proactive in soliciting information about continuing education needs from participants or other groups.

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CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION: A MODEL FOR SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

Charles Buddenhagen[1]
Joseph Testa

Abstract

Correctional education programs offer the college administrator and instructor both a challenge and a rewarding experience. Two community colleges have gained valuable insights into the planning and administration (enrollment, funding, problem-avoidance and recruitment of faculty and students) of these programs at the medium correctional institution at Jessup, Maryland. The two colleges, one providing credit and the other non-credit courses, serve different populations, meet different needs, and therefore require different approaches. Their experience is presented in this paper for the benefit of individuals interested in initiating programs for the incarcerated or in increasing the effectiveness of current programs in a correctional environment.

INTRODUCTION

Essex Community College (with a credit program) and Anne Arundel Community College (with non-credit courses) share along with two universities, an ABE and a GED program, and a number of church and volunteer organizations, in the educational program for inmates at the Maryland House of Correction for Men at Jessup. This medium-security correctional facility is located approximately ten miles south of Baltimore, off Route 95 south. Approximately 1,300 men are housed in the complex.

ESSEX COMMUNITY COLLEGE: CREDIT PROGRAM

Essex Community College's Correctional Education Program began in the Spring semester, 1975, with an enrollment of approximately 18 students at the Maryland House of Correction at Jessup (MHCJ). Subsequently, this Associate-in-the-Arts Degree program grew to a maximum enrollment of about 150 students. Currently, for financial reasons, enrollment is being limited to 120 students.

Each student in the Essex program is expected to enroll for 12 credits per semester. This allows each student to complete degree requirements in five semesters. Although the College itself offers degree programs in a variety of occupational areas, only the General Studies degree program is offered at the correctional facility because of the limited number of students and limited resources available in the confines of the prison.

There is little difficulty in recruiting students (2) to take college courses. They are admitted to the College program if they have a high school diploma or have passed the GED exam, and if they have a good conduct record as judged by correction officials. The College asks correction officials not to allow students into the program if they have little chance for parole within a reasonable period of time after completing their studies. We also request that students in the program not be transferred or paroled during the

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[1] Charles F. Buddenhagen, Director of Community Services/Continuing Education, Anne Arundel Community College, Arnold, Maryland 21012
Dr. Joseph Testa, Associate Dean of Instruction, Essex Community College, 7201 Rossville Boulevard, Baltimore, Maryland 21237

semester. However, when students are sent to us to enroll, we do not discuss the length of their sentence with them.

Courses are scheduled according to a master plan which insures that required courses are offered at least once each academic year, alternating between Spring and Fall and divided between first- and second-year courses. Meeting times for each class are arranged to accommodate the schedule set by prison authorities. At MHCJ, classes are offered from 9:00 to 11:00 a.m. and from 1:00 to 3:00 p.m., Monday through Friday. At the annex, classes are offered from 6:30 to 9:30 p.m., Monday through Friday. Each semester begins and ends on the schedule set for the main campus. For financial reasons, courses are offered only during the Fall and Spring semesters (no Summer or Winter minimester).

While recruiting faculty often presents difficulties(3) we have been quite successful in attracting and retaining highly qualified instructors. In fact, success has been largely due to a dedicated faculty, about half of whom are recruited from our full-time faculty. Before each semester begins, faculty in general, but new faculty in particular, are given an orientation to the correctional institution by the Department of Correction. This orientation session introduces faculty to the institution's procedures and departments and explains the interaction of departments with one another. Faculty are also instructed on what to do in an emergency. In addition to the orientation, new faculty are invited to visit the prison at a prearranged time before the start of the semester. This minimizes faculty dropout after the semester begins.

One of the biggest problems in correctional education is that of financing. At Essex, a combination of Pell grants and a college work/study program are available to help students pay for their education. The use of college work/study has the additional benefit that each inmate student must perform necessary work at the institution to earn the money needed to pay for his education. This minimizes the perception that the college educational program is free. Furthermore, if for any reason a student has a financial obligation to the College at the end of a semester, that student is denied the opportunity to continue in the program unless and until the obligation is paid. Students who wish to use veterans benefits to pay for their education are required to pay cash first and then be reimbursed by the Veterans Administration for actual costs. We adopted this policy because we have had students who indicated they were using their veterans benefits but, having received their Veterans Administration check, never paid their obligation.

In order to have a successful correctional education program, the top level administration must be committed to it. The commitment must be transmitted to department heads and division chairmen, and must include essential human resources. The Essex program has a full-time coordinator who is assisted by a full-time secretary/aide. The program is further supported by the educational supervisor and an inmate/student coordinator at each correctional facility. We have learned through experience that insufficient commitment of human resources to this program results in considerable "red ink." Continuous monitoring of a correctional education program is essential to insure academic integrity and financial viability.

Program evaluation is accomplished through formal student evaluations of instruction, class visits by full-time faculty and/or division chairmen, and informal reports from the educational supervisors.

ANNE ARUNDEL COMMUNITY COLLEGE: NON-CREDIT COURSES

Anne Arundel Community College's Correctional Education Program began in the Fall semester of 1980, with an enrollment of 100 Jessup inmates in three Self-Care Health Education courses co-sponsored with Georgetown University (Washington, D.C.). Currently, forty courses are offered annually, enrolling almost 1,000 inmates. Courses are now limited for lack of more instructional space.

Students in the AACC program are recruited primarily through the self-help programs or in the apprenticeship programs through Jessup's Classification Office. There is little difficulty in recruiting students to take the non-credit courses, because they are usually requested by individual self-help organizations. Some recruitment from the general population may be solicited by the Educational Committee if additional students are needed to meet minimum enrollment. The apprenticeship programs require correction officials to accept only students who will be released within three years of starting the program.

Course schedules take into account other needs of the self-help group such as organizational meetings, visits, etc. Most courses are offered once a week in the evening (7:00 to 9:30 p.m.), Monday through Friday and on Sunday, in six- to eight-week formats. Although apprenticeship courses are taught in a standard classroom, this space is usually not available for the self-help organizations, so other instruction may be offered in self-help organization offices, the main dining room, or in the open spaces of the activities area. Students who complete course requirements receive a certificate of participation which the Parole Board takes into consideration in its deliberations. Courses are offered only after review by the Educational Committee, the College, and the warden. Before a course is started, its appropriateness and book and equipment needs must be carefully thought out. The short format is important because of inmates leaving the institution (parole or transfer) and the daily problems of lock-ups, visits, administrative procedures, etc. Even the Apprenticeship program (144 hours) is offered in modules (20 to 30 hours each), so that competency in a specific portion of the course can be recognized.

Recruiting non-credit faculty is not difficult. To date, nearly all faculty have been recruited through recommendations, particularly of part-time instructors, from the College's academic departments. Although MHCJ is a forty-minute drive from the campus, all instructors have looked forward to repeating their experience at the prison. Students show great interest in what is being taught, complete tasks assigned, and welcome this "outside" contact. The writer accompanies each instructor to the first class to alleviate any residual fears, discuss security procedures, and head off potential problems of missed classes, security clearance, etc. Once in the classroom, the instructor is introduced to an inmate/class coordinator who will take care of any problems, registration procedures, issuance of books, etc.

Financing of non-credit programs comes from several resources:

1. Formulated State Aid: The State of Maryland supports occupational courses at a specific rate per FTE.

2. Contracts: The College has contracts with the State Board of Education covering specific courses the College is responsible for, e.g., typing, small-engine repair, office skills.

3. Apprenticeship: Each year the non-credit office submits a request for funding from the State Department of Education - Vocational Technical Training for instructional costs of the apprenticeship program. Textbooks, writing materials, audiovisuals and supplies needed are not part of the grant and must be purchased by the College.

4. Tuition: A nominal per-course ($50.00) fee is charged. This fee, which is independent of course length, is paid by self-help organizations.

Books and supplies are paid for by the inmates. The College has donated materials received from the faculty to the prison library. Most courses do not need textbooks, but can use handouts.

Two inmates and a representative of the College, meeting monthly as the Educational Committee, provide non-credit course coordination. In addition, an inmate is assigned as coordinator in each class and the College representative meets periodically with the assistant warden.

The Educational Committee is responsible for:

1. Receiving and evaluating course proposals from the self-help groups (from the prison population).
2. Insuring courses do not conflict with existing programs at the institution.
3. Insuring sufficient interest in the population to conduct a class (minimum 15 enrollments).
4. Insuring all internal administrative procedures are met (count-outs, approval by warden, etc.).

The committee meets each month on the second Monday from 8:30 to 10:30 a.m. in the activities area.

Evaluations of instructors and courses are done on a continuous basis. Each class has an inmate coordinator who is also a member of the self-help organization that originally proposed the course. They inform inmate members of the Educational Committee of any problems. These members may inform the College representative at the monthly meeting, or explain the situation on a pre-paid addressed postcard. Problems can range from an instructor being late to difficulties with internal prison administration. The postcards have helped to prevent easily-remedied situations from becoming major stumbling blocks to the program. Instructors are encouraged to contact the College representative at home or at the office with any concerns. Prison counselors and staff often provide feedback to the College during each visit, especially at Jessup where the writer meets with the assistant warden at least once each two months to exchange ideas.

CONCLUSION

Conducting classes in a correctional institution presents a unique set of problems(4). Correctional education programs are subject not only to limited space and equipment but also to the strict security procedures of a prison environment. Shakedowns, prisoner counts, lock-ups, and individual schedules for commissary privileges and visits can disrupt classes and result in lost instructional time. Faculty must be sensitive to this and must understand the implications of the student's lack of freedom to move about or to set and keep his own schedule. On the other hand, students must understand that they are held accountable for course content covered during their absence.

Despite the many unique difficulties associated with correctional education, programs such as this should be supported as a means toward inmate rehabilitation(5). Without this philosophical conviction, the program will not receive the support needed to make it successful.

COURSES

Credit

Management, History, Psychology, Chemistry, English, Sociology, Speech, Political Science, Criminal Justice, Economics, Philosophy, Biology.

Non-Credit

Counseling Skills (Youth, Family, Drugs), Abnormal Psychology, Public Relations, Grantsmanship, CPR, Sign Language, Parole and Probation, Music Theory, Art Techniques for Teaching Art, Creative Writing, Photography, Speed Reading, Business Law, Data Processing, Real Estate, Legal Paraprofessionalism, Basic Math and English Skills, Arabic; and the following Apprenticeship Programs: Cook, Baker, Woodworking and Paint Manufacturing Operator.

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PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN WASHINGTON STATE PRISONS

Lorre A. McGreal
Bonnie Johnson
Tom Trail[1]

ABSTRACT

A theory based summative evaluation of parent education programs at the Washington State Reformatory at Monroe and the Purdy Treatment Center for Women was conducted. Researchers visited the parent education programs at the two prisons to observe preschools in action and attend parent education classes. A Tyler-based evaluation of the two programs indicated that they were fairly well designed. The two programs in the Washington Prison system are seen as positive forces in the prison environment by facilitators, residents, guards, and prison officials.

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Of the approximately 4,000 incarcerated individuals in Washington's adult correctional facilities; one-half are parents. Three out of every four women imprisoned in Washington are mothers. The majority of these women had been in daily contact with their children prior to arrest. Of the total male population incarcerated in Washington state, 47% are fathers. Only 23 percent of these fathers had been out of contact with their children.

Findings suggest that the prisoners' failure to live up to society's laws is often preceded by their failure to fulfill their family role. Prisoner's in virtually all the studies reviewed expressed desire to become better parents.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to conduct a theory based summative evaluation of the parent education programs at the Washington State Reformatory and the Purdy Treatment Center for women, based on Ralph Tyler's program development principles.

Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of the study were:

1. Describe the effects of parental incarceration on the parent-child relationship through a review of the literature.
2. Review the literature on parent education programs in prisons in the United States and abroad.
3. Evaluate the basic elements of the parent education programs at the Washington State

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[1] Lorre A. McGreal, Adult Education for Washington State Grange. Bonnie Johnson, Assistant Professor, General Agriculture and Home Economics, Thomas F. Trail, Professor, Adult and Continuing Education, Washington State University, 323 Agricultural Sciences Building, Pullman, WA 99164-6236.

Reformatory and the Purdy Treatment Center based on Ralph Tyler's program development principles.

Two instruments were designed to be used in the collection of data. A facilitators questionnaire was developed based on Tyler's program development framework. This instrument was developed to collect data on the program elements. An interview schedule was also developed to collect and update the data on the programs at Purdy and Monroe. A panel of judges reviewed both the instruments and the final evaluation report. The data collected using the instruments was combined with information from printed information on the programs.

Parent education programs at the Washington State Reformatory and the Purdy Treatment Center were visited by the researchers. During the visitations, researchers observed both pre-schools in action and attended the parent education classes and talked with facilitators and resident students.

Review of Literature

The review of literature indicated that very few penal institutions in the United States have programs in parent education. Studies indicate that prisoners desire to improve their parenting skills.

Major points from the review of literature were:

1. The majority of imprisoned parents desire to be better parents.
2 Contact with family during imprisonment lowers the rearrest rate in males.
3. Some children manifest behavioral disorders when a parent is imprisoned.
4. Very few prisons offer programs in Family Life Education.
5. Evaluations of parent education programs in prisons are virtually non-existent.

RESULTS

Washington State Reformatory at Monroe

The reformatory at Monroe is a maximum security men's prison. The Family Life Education Program at Monroe centers around a children's activity center that is located in the visiting room and is used every Thursday afternoon during visiting hours. Residents who have completed an academic quarter in the prison's five credit Parent Education class offered through Edmonds Community College, are eligible to participate as aides in the parent cooperative preschool in the visiting room. Not all residents in the parent education class are parents. The preschool provides all the resident-students an opportunity to work with children. The primary objectives of the program are: (1) strengthen the functioning of families; (2) develop the residents' parenting skills; (3) assist the residents in developing a better understanding of their children and their children's developmental needs.

The philosophy of the parent cooperative preschools is that parenthood is an occupation like any other occupation and, therefore, requires education and experience. The preschool should be operated and supported by the parents it serves. The parents are involved in cooperative learning which includes their children and in which they determine what learning takes place.

The inmates at the Washington State Reformatory played an important role in the development of the parent education program at the prison. The need for the program was identified by the residents themselves. Through inmate contact with Edmonds Community College, a program was developed.

Specific felt needs, cited by the inmates included: (1) some degree of privacy to talk in the visiting rooms; (2) a relaxed atmosphere in the visiting rooms; (3) a setting with things to occupy children; (4) educational resources for adults available in visiting rooms; (5) some form of nutritious snack for the children; (6) a couples counseling group; (7) resources for wives; (8) parenting skills; (9) college credit courses.

The program began in 1973 with two courses, Child Development and Marriage and Family, being taught within the reformatory by Edmonds Community College. The need to have parents interacting with their children became apparent to facilitators and students. The preschool provides an atmosphere where families can interact and learn to function better as a unit. The preschool also provides the opportunity for the residents to improve their parenting skills. Through observation and interaction with children, the residents develop a deeper understanding of children and their developmental needs.

Purdy Treatment Center

Purdy Treatment Center houses all women imprisoned in the state of Washington (except for women in city and county jails). Purdy offers educational and hands on experience in child development and parenting. The Purdy Treatment Center operates a preschool for children from the Gig Harbor area. At each session of the preschool, two resident-students who have successfully completed the three month child development course offered through Tacoma Community College, assist a certified teacher. This provides all the residents, who have completed the course, hands-on experience with children. Residents may also sign their visiting children up to use the preschool room and to attend classes. These activities are supervised by an instructor. The preschool room provides an opportunity for mother and child to visit in an atmosphere that is conducive to interaction.

The program at Purdy was specifically developed to meet the needs of imprisoned mothers. Although no formal needs assessment was conducted, facilitators became aware that the inmates desired to improve their parenting skills. The original program consisted of classes in parenting and child development. A preschool was added to the program in 1971, because the facilitator saw the need for the resident-students to observe actual child development and to be able to practice parenting skills in prison.

Occasionally, mothers are required to complete a course in parenting in order to reclaim custody of their children upon their release. Another need the program fulfills is providing credits in vocational child care to residents who are interested in career in the child care field upon release.

The preschool was also designed to meet the community need for a preschool for low income children in the Gig Harbor area. To meet this need, the program was offered free of charge to all area residents with children between the ages of three and five.

The need for the preschool developed from the facilitator's observations that the students were having trouble mastering concepts of child development and parenting skills. The facilitator felt that a preschool would provide a learning laboratory for the residents while providing a needed service to the Gig Harbor area. The resident-students serve as assistants in the preschool on a regular basis.

The primary objective of the program at Purdy is for both the residents and the children in the preschool to develop a positive self concept. The objectives of the program are: (1) to have the residents feel good enough about themselves that they are going to feel comfortable interacting with the children in the preschool; and, (2) to have the women learn there are other ways of relating to children and help them with their parenting skills.

Purdy combines course work with a learning laboratory. Individual contact between the resident-student and the preschool facilitator emphasized individualized learning. One major way students learn was through observing the preschool facilitator interact with the children. This was supplemented by the facilitator emphasizing and explaining her behavior to the resident-student. The Purdy program integrated the preschool with the course work. The facilitator for the preschool attends all of the class meetings. By doing this, the preschool facilitator was prepared to relate the theories and concepts being discussed in class to the actual situation.

The major concept behind the program at Purdy was that through positive interaction with children, women can improve their self-concept and parenting skills. The course aims at developing skills in communication, parenting, responsibility, discussion and problem solving.

Program Evaluation

The two programs in Washington indicated that the programs were fairly well designed. Facilitators who designed the programs conducted informal needs assessment of the learners. Prison environment was considered, and input on the effects of the environment was gathered from matter specialists and journal articles. Programs reflected the philosophy of the division of the adult corrections for Washington State. Psychology of learning was used to determine feasible goals for the inmates. The learning experiences were well selected and organized. Preschools provided practice for the learners as well as providing satisfaction. Experiences were organized to provide continuity, sequence and integration of elements. The major weaknesses in programs centered around the lack of program evaluation.

IMPLICATIONS

There are specific problems unique to a parent education program in a prison environment. First, the parents and the children are separated the majority of the time. Second, husbands and wives are also separated, therefore, dual parenting is more difficult. Security policies of the institution place restrictions on certain learning experiences and equipment use. The prison atmosphere is highly charged emotionally.

The learners also have specific problems created by the prison situation. The inmates are under great amounts of peer pressure at all times. Frustration is a common problem. Overcrowded conditions created tension and anger. The prisoner's family is often under stress from economic problems. Shortage of funds creates problems for the family that tries to maintain family ties. Visits to the prison are time consuming and often require a substantial amount of travel on the families part.

Some of these problems can be alleviated through parent education programs. The two parent education programs in the Washington prison system are seen as positive forces in the prison environment by the facilitators, residents, guards and prison officials. Guards and residents verbalized that the presence of children in the visiting rooms added a dimension of humanism and warmth to the prison atmosphere. The humanizing aspect of the presence of children in the institution also has an effect on the residents. Guards at the Washington State Reformatory claimed that the prisoners were much more relaxed and better behaved on the days that the preschool was operating in the visiting room.

Studies indicate that prisoners desire to improve their parenting skills. A family education center provides a learning experience for both parents and their children. Programs, such as the ones at Purdy and Monroe, encourage the interaction between parents and their children.

Data from recidivism studies indicates that strenghtened family ties could lower the rearrest rates of prisoners with families. Further research on the effects of parent education on imprisoned audiences needs to be done to determine if parent education actually facilitates improved family relationships.

Studies show that some children manifest behavioral disorders when a parent is imprisoned. The preschool provides the opportunity for interaction with an imprisoned parent and an atmosphere conducive to constructive play, thereby emphasizing and encouraging good behavior in children.

Parent education has many implications for imprisoned mothers. Mothers who have been ruled unfit by the courts might benefit from such a program. Through interaction with children, women may improve their self-concept. Women's parenting skills may also be improved through interaction with children.

Vocational training in child care may lead to employment upon release from prison. Community involvement in the program (local children in the preschool) may increase local acceptance of released residents seeking employment in the child care field.

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SELF-PERCEIVED CHANGES IN LEADERSHIP CAPABILITIES OF PARTICIPANTS IN AN EXTENSION TRAINING PROGRAM

Judy M. Groff[1]

Abstract

This study examines the association of shifts in personal meanings of leadership variables with participation in an Extension training program. Two types of change—response shift and self-anchorage—were used to determine the association. Findings support that participants expanded their conceptual maps regarding the leadership areas and also shifted in self-perceived capabilities to give leadership in the areas. For impact evaluators, this study demonstrates that certain psychological variables can be measured efficiently and effectively.

Introduction

Educational agencies such as the Cooperative Extension Service conduct many kinds of training programs for staff and clients. Documenting whether the training effort is associated with changes in the participant's self perception of his capabilities in a given area is of interest to the educator. A related concern is the relationship between characteristics of the learner and the personal meanings derived from the educational program. A better understanding of these two questions can contribute to more appropriately designed and implemented programs.

This study focused on the efforts of the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service to improve leadership capabilities of field staff. The job descriptions of various job groups in the organization emphasize leadership skills. The County Chairman job group, in particular, has been provided some specialized orientation to their expanded leadership role. This inquiry examined a new, intensive leadership development program, the Extension Executive Development Institute (EEDI). It is generally reported in the literature that if an individual perceives a change in his leadership behavior, his actual performance as a leader is likely to change accordingly.

Development of Personal Meanings

Learning theory that views learning as a product of experience provides the rationale and conceptual design of this study. Combs (1976, p. 207) proposed that learning is a product of an individual's perceptual field. He said the development of personal meanings is a progressive differentiation from a more general to a more detailed one. "Perception", he defined as personal meanings which guide behavior. Combs continued his rationale by saying (pp. 202-204), "The closer the perceived relationship of an experience to the phenomenal self, the greater will be the effect of the experience upon behavior and functioning."

With regard to perceptual development, Cantril (1967, p. 284) noted that one's perception depends on the assumptions that the individual takes into a situation. Because every situation is different, one tends to build up constancies about the environment that can be counted on. These constancies, or "anchoring points", he says are the basis of reality to the individual and provide standards for judging and giving meaning to situations.

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[1] Judy M. Groff, Extension Assistant Professor, 4-H Extension, Ricks Hall, North Carolina State University, Box 7606, Raleigh, North Carolina 27695-7606.

Combs (1976) concluded that learning results from perceptual differentiation which is the process of emerging field from ground. He described differentiation as awareness in relation to an image, concept, object or person. He said that awareness is an irreversible process. Howard (1980) suggested that one goal of training is to change a person's awareness of a concept. To the extent that the intervention meets this goal, the subject's perspective in evaluating himself on that dimension will change.

Extension Executive Development Institute

The Extension Executive Development Institute, as an in-service training program, was described by Liles and Carter (1982) as atypical in plan, design and delivery. Comprehensive planning incorporated resources from the Departments of Adult and Community College Education, Economics and Business, Political Science, and Psychology at North Carolina State University; the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service; the School of Business Administration and Institute of Governments at the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill. More than 45 faculty members were drawn from these sources to assist in teaching different segments of the six, three-day sessions.

Liles and Carter (1982) described the design as atypical because each of the six, three-day sessions were scheduled one month apart. They explained that this allows the participants time between sessions to read and study the notebook materials; and, when possible, to apply skills acquired in training to the work environment.

The delivery of the Institute program as described by Liles and Carter (1982) was comprehensive. Class instruction included lecture discussion, small group work, seminars and participant or group presentations. A major learning project that covered the entire six months centered around a case study called the "Sunset Case".

Liles and Carter reported that the Institute was assessed using Ralph Tyler's Learning System Construct to determine its adequacy as a learning system. Their examination indicated that the EEDI did show evidence of portraying many of the eight characteristics of an adequate learning system.

The curriculum of the EEDI included programming, public policy education, human resource development, and budgeting. These four concepts were used as the dependent variables under investigation in this study.

Research Design

This research was quasi-experimental and used an adaptation of the "before and after control group" (Pre-test/Post-test) design (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 335). Kerlinger acknowledged several limitations when using this design in any situation, but Howard (1980) wrote about a serious contaminant in the Pre-test/Post-test design when using self-report measures. He said the problem is that the standard of measurement may change. He says that if the standard of measurement does change, the ratings would reflect this shift in understanding in addition to any actual changes in the subject. He continued that since one goal of training is to change a person's understanding of a particular concept, it is logical to expect this kind of contamination. Moreover, he argued that a training program can be considered successful to the extent that the program produces a change in the standard for evaluation. This change in dimension is referred to in the literature as "response shift bias". Howard recommended using a retrospective pretest (Then-test) in studies which employ self-report measures to control for this shift in the subject's awareness of a variable. Therefore, this study incorporated a Then-test administered immediately following the Post-test.

The primary instrument used for this study was a Self-Anchoring Scale. (Kilpatrick and Cantril, 1960) Using the Kilpatrick and Cantril design for self-anchoring scaling, instruments were prepared for each of the four dependent variable concepts using a staircase graphic with the numeral 10 at the top and numeral 0 at the bottom. The scale asked the participant to imagine in terms of his own perceptions, goals, and values the top and bottom anchoring points relative to the specified concept. To operationalize the concept, he was instructed to place an "X" on the stairstep to indicate where he perceived himself to be on the self-defined continuum in terms of his leadership capability. In addition, information was collected regarding age, sex, job position, tenure, educational history and former work experience.

Professionals in the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service served as the population for this study. A sample of 19 professionals were selected to comprise the program group, and a quasi-control group of 12 county Extension agents were matched to the program group on the variables sex, age, job position and county size.

The Pre-test packet was administered on the first day of the EEDI to both the program group and the quasi-control group, and the Institute (treatment) continued for six months. On the last day of the Institute a Post-test was administered to both groups; immediately following administration of the Post-test, the Then-test was given. The testing instruments were administered to the quasi-control group and the program group concurrently.

Data were analyzed using a T-test. Two measures of change were determined. (1) Response-shift change was the mean difference between the Then-test scores and the Pre-test scores. (2) Self-anchoring change was the mean Then-test scores compared to the mean Post-test scores. According to Howard (1980), response-shift is a key indicator of the effect of the treatment because this change reflects a change in understanding of the concept. It is also critical to note that response-shifts are treatment dependent; and, therefore, should not be present in the quasi-control group.

Findings

The participants in this study were 31 Extension professionals from 30 counties. Over half of the participants were male with an undergraduate degree in agriculture. A typical participant in the study was male, between 30 and 40 years of age, had been in Extension 12 years, and had changed positions in the past five years. He had a Masters Degree in adult education and had taken at least one course in administration. He had not participated in previous workshops on leadership.

Hypothesis testing indicated that participants in the EEDI changed their personal meanings and perception of their capabilities in three of the four leadership areas. Response-shift scores for programming, public policy education, and human resource development were significant at the .05 level. The quasi-control group, on the other hand, failed to show any significant response shift T-scores.

For the second measure of change, self-anchorage change, the program group had significant T-scores for all of the four leadership areas--programming, public policy education, human resource development and budgeting. The quasi-control group had significant Self-Anchorage Change only on the variables programming, human resource development, and budgeting.

Further hypothesis testing in the program group for response-shift change with regard to demographic variables revealed several noteworthy findings. For programming, all variables, except position in Extension, had impact on change and showed differences between the dichotomized subgroups. The relationship between participation in the Institute and public policy education was not significant for any of the demographic variables; and, in fact, six of the ten variables negated the relationship. Only the variables sex, tenure in position, graduate major, and leadership workshops attended produced differences between the subgroups. Human resource development followed the same pattern as public policy education, but with only three characteristics showing differences. These were tenure in position, highest degree earned, and leadership workshops attended. All of the other variables negated the formerly significant relationship.

In contrast to response-shift change, statistically significant self-anchorage changes resulted with specification of certain demographic characteristics. Two exceptions where demographics appeared to be associated with self-anchorage change were: no leadership workshops attended, and one or more administrative courses taken. For programming and public policy education, the only change variable associated with participation in the Institute was no leadership workshops attended. For human resource development, none of the variables had influence on self-anchorage change. For budgeting, self-anchorage changes were statistically significant for all specified characteristics except for one or more leadership workshops attended and no administrative courses taken.

Conclusions and Implications

The primary conclusion of this study was that participation in the Institute appeared to be associated with self-perceived changes in capabilities in three leadership areas. The program group had significant response-shift and self-anchorage changes for the areas of programming, public policy education, and human resource development. Another conclusion is that response shifts are associated with participation in the Institute. Howard (1980) found that response-shifts are treatment dependent. This study upholds Howard's findings in that the program group had significant response-shift for three of the four leadership variables while the quasi-control group had no significant response-shift change.

A related conclusion is that on-the-job experience appears to have been associated with certain self-perceived changes over time. Self-anchorage change was significant for the quasi-control group for programming, human resource development and budgeting.

Conclusions regarding the demographics of the participants provide a profile of the participants who showed the most change. The profile includes males who are over 40 years old, who have been in Extension over 11 years, but who have occupied their present position less than 5 years. This profile is further defined with variables related to education. Participants having an undergraduate major in agriculture, a Masters Degree outside of adult education, no leadership workshops attended, and one or more administrative courses taken had significant response shifts when these demographics were specified.

An important implication of this study is that certain psychological variables can be measured efficiently and effectively. This study supports the notion of Combs (1972) that personal meaning can be assessed within the context of an educational setting. Institute participants had the benefit of systematic content and process learning experiences which the quasi-control group did not have. The Self-Anchoring Scale instrument enabled perception changes to be measured. As predicted, the program group had significant response shifts in three of the four leadership areas while the quasi-control group did not. This implies that participants expanded their conceptual maps regarding these leadership areas and also shifted in self-perceived capabilities to give leadership in these areas.

Due to the finding that both groups showed self-anchorage change and that a possible explanation could be that on-the-job experience contributes to self-perceived changes in capabilities, one may infer that the response-shift measure of change is more sensitive to change resulting from the treatment than is self-anchorage change. On the other hand, the fact that no significant self-anchorage change occurred in the quasi-control group for public policy education may imply that no on-the-job learning is occurring in this area.

For the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service this study has implications for evaluation and accountability purposes. Non-formal education like Extension needs easily-administered, practical evaluation procedures (Bender, p. 205). The instrument used in this study is simple and easy to administer and interpret. Since it is a self-reporting instrument and is based on personal meaning, it is a non-threatening way to assess change in perceived competence resulting from participation in an educational program. The methodology also has implications for designing impact studies using self-report instruments. Then-tests, administered immediately following a Post-test, should be planned to give the evaluator the flexibility to determine response shift.

A final implication regards the use of Pre-test self-assessment devices for determining educational needs of learners. Response-shift and the associated biases implicit in this phenomenon clearly indicate that learners cannot accurately report their level of competence for an area that is not adequately conceptualized within their individual cognitive maps. Certainly the self-perceptions of learners must be considered for purposes of learner motivation as well as to obtain clues about competency levels. But the recommendations of specialists, as well as analysis of the contemporary societal context, must be used as sources for the totality of needs from which program objectives are derived.

Leadership is a complex phenomena to study. This study examines leadership change from the perspective of the learner. Additional studies using similar instruments and methodology need to be conducted in other psychological areas for further development of this assessment strategy.

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DEVELOPMENT OF A CAREER LIFE/WORK PLANNING WORKSHOP FOR WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY COOPERATIVE EXTENSION FACULTY

Jean K. Yale
Thomas F. Trail
Richard E. Young
Ronald M. Jimmerson[1]

Abstract

A career education life/work planning workshop for Washington State Cooperative Extension (WSCE) Faculty was planned, implemented and evaluated. The workshop was developed based on materials by Richard Bolles and John Crystal. The evaluation indicated the workshop was highly successful in helping participants: (1) increase awareness of their skills, interests, and special knowledge (2) find meaningful application of their abilities and (3) plan the future for fulfilling career development. It is recommended that career/life work planning should become a part of the career development program for WSCE faculty.

Cooperative Extension in Washington State has experienced an unofficial turnover rate of 50 percent during the past six years. This is of concern to Cooperative Extension administration. The reason for this in part has been attributed to the increased rate of retirements and the movement of employees to other jobs. In late 1981 the WSCE Faculty Development Advisory Committee recommended that a staff development effort, or in-service program in career development was needed for its faculty. Upon administration approval the faculty development committee began the development of a Career Development Plan for faculty. As a part of this effort a six hour career education life/work planning workshop, based on the approach used by Richard Bolles (1974) was developed for Inservice Education Week in March 1982. A total of 37 faculty participated in the workshop.

Procedures

To develop the workshop in career education life/work planning the following procedures were followed:

1. A search of the literature was conducted to identify theories and concepts of vocational choice, adult development, and educational design.
2. Several educational design models were reviewed and evaluated for their relevance to the project. Models developed by Ralph Tyler (1949) and Cyril Houle (1974) were chosen for more extensive study.
3. A career life/work planning workshop was developed using Houle's model and materials developed by Crystal and Bolles (1974).
4. The workshop was conducted and evaluated and conclusions and recommendations were made.

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[1] Jean K. Yale, Director, Program Development Specialist, Richland College, Dallas, Texas 75252. Ronald M. Jimmerson, Assistant Professor, Thomas F. Trail, Professor, and Richard E. Young, Professor Emeritus, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington 99164-6236.

Workshop Design

Houle's seven decision points were used as a basic framework in planning and carrying out the workshop. These are (1) possible activity identified (2) decision is made to proceed (3) objectives identified and refined (4) format designed (5) format fitted into larger patterns of life 6) Plan carried out 7) evaluation.

The first two steps were described above. The remaining decision points are briefly outlined.

Objectives Identified and Refined

The broad objectives of the workshop were for participants to explore the past to gain an awareness of skills, interests, and special knowledge; examine the present to find meaningful application of abilities; and plan the future for fulfilling career development. These were further refined by examining six factors suggested by Houle. These are: (1) the social milieu - In-service education week (2) the participants - employed - WSCE faculty who desired guidance in career life/work planning (3) the content - the Parachute Process of career life/work planning developed by Bolles (4) the design - mini lectures, worksheets, newsprint, blackboard and small group discussion. (5) the aspirations - that participants would be able to effectively use the tools provided (6) the motives of participants - need to learn a process to give direction to their lives. The refined objectives were:

1. To actively involve the participants in their career development by providing them with the tools to use in their life/work planning process.
2. To stimulate the participants to seek new knowledge to use in the career life/work planning process and thereby gain control over their career development.

Format Designed

The format of the workshop was developed considering ten elements suggest by Houle as important. These are 1) resources 2) leaders 3) methods 4) schedule 5) sequence 6) social reinforcement 7) individualization 8) roles and relationships 9) criteria of evaluation 10) clarity of design. Each of these is briefly discussed.

Resources are the materials selected to achieve the objectives. A shortened version of Bolles "Quick Job Hunting Map" was used to identify participants functional transferable skills (those skills developed through life experiences). Also used were exercises in skill identification, a time-line to jog the memory, burn-out/rust-out exercise, information gathering, prioritizing, values clarification and examination of preferences in people and work environments.

The workshop leader was trained in the use of Bolles techniques and selected on that basis. The methods used in the workshop were based on an adaptation of a model developed by Keeton et. al. This model consists of two cycles: (1) information assimilation process and (2) experiential learning process. The information assimilation process is one in which the learner assimilates and organizes information received from a symbolic medium (e.g. a short lecture). The learner then infers a particular application from the general knowledge and moves from the symbolic area to action. For example, the participants listened to a short lecture, assimilater and organize the information, do an exercise, translate the exercise to real life.

Scheduling of the workshop was worked around other activities of In-Service Week. The workshop was held from 3:00 to 5:00 p.m. Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday.

Sequencing of materials was based on the Parachute process which has a logical flow.

Social reinforcement was provided by table arrangements, room atmosphere, small group discussions, etc.

Individualization is implicit in the Parachute process as each learner, using the tools provided, creates his/her own life/work plan.

Rules and relationships in the workshop consisted primarily of colleagues working together with the workshop leader acting as facilitator and consultant.

The criteria of evaluation are the standards against which the assessment is weighed. The criteria evolved from the objectives listed earlier.

Clarity of design was provided for by an introductory explanation of the Parachute Process.

The Format is Fitted Into Larger Patterns of Life

There were four elements considered in this decision step: (1) guiding learners in and out of the program and helping participants connect one activity to another (2) lifestyle considerations related to participants normal day-to-day activities (3) financing the workshop (4) interpreting the program or winning support for it from outside persons. Theses four elements were not a serious problem once Extension administration accepted the need for the workshop and provide its support.

Plan (Workshop) Carried Out

Monday's session was donated entirely to the process of skill identification. The first step in this process is to write up a life experience in story form. The timeline developed by the participants before workshop were returned. Two "stories" were read and functional transferable skills in the stories identified as examples. The participants met in trios and each read his/her "story" while the other two wrote down skills in the "story". Finally, participants were given a list of 250 verbs describing functional skills and were asked to choose a verb that best described one of their functional skills then write a competencies statement. As homework they were asked to go through this process with other stories and completing statements. Competencies statements are used to help one remember the past and help plan the future in terms of what one can do because one has done and enjoyed it. They help one organize thoughts in a concise fashion.

Tuesday began with feedback and clarification. Skills and special knowledge were put into a chart organizing them according to where they had been acquired. The main exercise for this session was a practice field survey where participants interviewed someone for information about jobs/courses. The final exercise Tuesday was a mini-lecture on "Plan B", that is an alternative plan which can be used when the main plan goes awry.

The last day of the workshop was devoted to people and work environments, decision making and values clarification. Participants wrote down negative statements or words concerning work and people environments then turned them into positive statements. This enabled participants to decide what things really bothered them most in work environments. The decision making exercise was concerned with prioritizing forces related to work by comparing only two items at a time. The end result was a ranking of items. The values clarification exercise consisted of listing heroes and heroines from fiction, and people from the past and present that the participants admired. At the conclusion of the day there was a brief explanation of how to decide about geography when a person plans to leave one job for another. There was also a short discussion of salary and its relationship to level of responsibility. The workshop came to an end with final evaluation forms being completed by participants.

Evaluation

The evaluation carried out was both formative and summative in nature. The evaluation was conducted primarily as feedback to the workshop coordinator and WSCE. The main information sought was whether participants were receptive to the philosophy of the Parachute Process for staff development. The evaluation helped make judgements about the workshop format and design and obtained a feel for resources which should be included in a workshop for staff development. The criteria for workshop success were satisfactory responses to daily and summative written evaluations using evaluation forms.

Formative Evaluation

Participants were asked to list what they liked most and what they liked least during Monday's session. Skills identification was listed most often as an item most liked while the story-writing activity was listed most often as an item liked least. About 54% of participants rated Monday's activities at 3.5 or above on a scale of 1-5 where 1= not helpful and 5=very helpful. For Tuesday's session the practice field survey was listed most often as the item most liked. Time of the day during which the workshop was conducted was a concern for many participants. About 82% of participants rated Tuesday's activities at 3.5 or above on a scale of 1-5 where 1=not helpful and 5=very helpful.

Summative Evaluation

For 84% of the participants reporting, the workshop objectives, for the most part, were achieved. In addition 84% of the participants felt the description of the workshop and the workshop itself were very nearly matched and 92% thought the workshop was satisfactory and relevant to their needs. About 95% of the participants recommended that the workshop be offered again and that they would also recommend it to a colleague. It was apparent from the study that career life/work planning, in the context of staff development, is a worthwhile idea to offer, not only on an individual basis but in terms of a follow-up workshop basis in the context of Inservice Education Week. The implications are that state Extension organizations should develop comprehensive career development programs which are integrated into the total staff development effort for all faculty. As a result of this effort, Washington State University has developed a basic career development program for faculty including pre-retirement training.

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LITERACY EDUCATION FOR ADULTS IN COLONIAL AMERICA AS REVEALED BY SELECTED NEWSPAPERS

Huey B. Long[1]

Abstract

Literacy education in the United States is frequently thought of as a modern phenomenon. There is evidance, however, that even in colonial America there were provisions for literacy education for adults. This paper, based primarily upon newspaper sources, describes colonial provisions for literacy education through evening schools, the curriculum, evening school houses, characteristics of the masters of the evening schools and conclusions.

INTRODUCTION

Rhetoric associated with the problems of adult illiteracy in contemporary western nations may tempt the uncritical to believe concerns for developing skills in reading and writing are strictly modern in origin. In reality, British and Dutch colonists who braved the rigors of the New World imported a relatively strong respect for literacy. Settlement patterns and differences in the social backgrounds of the settlers contributed to a range of attitudes towards, and provisions for, literacy among the various regions of colonial America. Differences between New England and the more sparsely settled southern plantations are well documented in educational histories. Nonetheless, differences between cities and the frontier are frequently overlooked.

Literacy education was basic to the city dweller's ascent up the economic and social ladder. Modernization moved men and women further away from traditional systems, written records were increasingly a part of business transactions, credit formed a basis for expansion, contracts attested to agreements formerly sealed by a handshake, inventories were required and communication increasingly depended upon the written word. The ability to read, to write and to cipher provided a fundamental means of advancement. A variety of efforts were made to diffuse basic skills throughout the population of the coastal cities. These efforts included laws concerning the education of children, as adopted in Massachusetts, establishment of schools and other provisions. But, educational opportunity was not limited to children. Young adults who had failed to gain necessary literacy skills in childhood also found ways of becoming literate.

Adults in the eighteenth century turned to private schoolmasters for literacy education. Therefore, this study is designed to report and describe the role of private teachers in literacy education. The primary source for the information reported in the following paragraphs is the newspapers of the eighteenth century. Findings are discussed in five parts; first, evening schools and literacy education are discussed; second, the basic curriculum (as described in newspaper advertisements) is described; third, evening school houses are described; fourth, some characteristics of evening schoolmasters are described. Fifth, the paper ends with concluding remarks.

EVENING SCHOOLS AND LITERACY EDUCATION

In the last half of the seventeenth century it had become evident to the residents of the coastal towns. A new educational institution was required. Thus, around 1660, the first evening schools appeared in New York. As the town schools were an English product, the evening schools seem to have been the early products of the Dutch.

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[1] Huey B. Long, Professor of Adult Education, Adult Education Department, Tucker Hall, University of Georgia, Athens, 30602.

One of the earliest references to evening instruction is dated November 4, 1661 (Seybolt, 1971), concerning rules for Evert Pietersen, schoolmaster, as drafted by the burgomasters of New Amsterdam. One section of the instructions concerns the fees that the professor could charge. It is instructive to observe that the regulations imposed on Pietersen suggest the schoolmaster taught children in the day, and "others" in the evening.

Seybolt (1971) cites several other evening schools in the New Amsterdam area including three in Flatbush between 1670 and 1682. The early Dutch schoolmasters adopted a fee pattern that would be followed later by the English as evening schools were established in other cities.

Evening schools were readily accepted by the British after New Netherland became the Royal Province of New York. Availability of instruction in the evening, after six p.m., was a fortunate event for masters of apprentices. Since a large proportion of apprenticeship contracts in the last quarter of the seventeenth century included educational clauses, masters sought ways to provide required instruction without interfering with the production of the apprentices. The evening school offered an acceptable solution for the problem.

The earliest evidence that apprentices and masters found the evening school to be an acceptable means of providing instruction to the apprentice is dated 1690 (Seybolt, 1971). A contract recorded in Harlem reveals that the master and apprentice agreed that the apprentice would have the privilege of going to evening school. Other references to agreements between masters and apprentices concerning evening school followed with increasing regularity.

The Harlem indenture referred to above, also set another pattern. The contract provided that the master would give the apprentice "winter's schooling." That expression has been generally accepted as referring to the evening school (Anania, 1969). A contract of November 18, 1701, provides a more definite reference to the evening school and instruction in the winter. That contract provided that the apprentice would be permitted to attend school in the evenings each winter so that he might learn to read and write (Seybolt, 1971).

Seybolt's (1971) research on the evening school identified one hundred and eight apprentice contracts in New York City for the years between 1698 and 1727 that refer to the practice of sending apprentices to evening schools.

Indentures between apprentices and masters in New England did not contain references to evening schools as the New York contracts did. There is, however, abundant evidence that a number of evening schools operated in Boston during the fifty years before the Revolution. Evidence of the existance of evening schools in Boston comes from a source different from the one used by Seybolt to determine the existence of the New York schools. The source is a Boston newspaper. This writer identified thirty-two advertisements of evening schools in the Boston Gazette and Country Journal, published in a nine year period between March 25, 1765, and October 3, 1774.

John Griffith was one of the more prolific Boston evening school advertisers. He placed about two ads each year in the Boston Gazette and Country Journal between 1766 and 1774. The first advertisement attributed to Griffith (Boston Gazette and Country Journal) was worded as follows:

> John Griffith (opposite William Vassall's Esq.) Opens school this day to teach misses spelling, writing, and arithmetic from 11 to 12 in the morning and 5 to 6 in the evening. Those who intend to send their sons are desired to be speedy as his number is almost complete. (April 14, 1776).

By 1774, Griffith had changed his advertisement slightly. His ad of October 3, 1774, (Boston Gazette and Country Journal) reported:

> Evening school. This evening John Griffith's School in Hanover Street will be opened to teach writing and arithmetic from 6 to 8 o'clock, where those inclined to be taught may apply.

THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the evening school was evolutionary in character. The curriculum of the earliest schools in New York City consisted of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The close relationship of the apprenticeship system to the evening school is significant in matters of curriculum. In the earliest years of the eighteenth century, there is evidence that the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic may have been provided separately, or in combination desired by the client. The client (the person paying the fee) may have been either the apprentice or the master.

Around 1725, a change in curriculum was evident. Whereas, the earlier evening schools had emphasized the elementary subjects, they were now few in number. After the first quarter of the eighteenth century there were many courses that were taught with special reference to the trades and commercial pursuits. The higher curriculum of the evening schools included a wide variety of courses. The newspaper advertisements of the day indicate that the schools met the demand of a sizable segment of the population for practical instruction beyond the "lower branches" of instruction. Consequently, the evening schools provided technical instruction for bookkeepers, merchants, surveyors, and navigators. However, the focus of this article is upon the basic curriculum. Therefore, comments are limited to descriptions of the rudimentary provisions.

The Rudimentary Curriculum

The rudimentary or elementary curriculum included reading, writing, and arithmetic. A brief description of some of the writing schools and arithmetic course offerings is discussed below.

Arithmetic - The evening schoolmasters made a distinction between common and mercantile arithmetic (Seybolt, 1969). Common arithmetic, according to Seybolt, referred to the rudiments of the subject. The content of the mercantile arithmetic, based on an advertisement of James and Samuel Giles, of New York, included "vulgar and decimal," interests and annuities, and extraction of roots of all powers. Thomas Carroll, of the same city, included how to purchase or sell annuities, leases for reversion, freehold estates, and simple and compound interest in his course of instruction (Seybolt, 1969).

Writing - William Elphinston, of New York, was one of the few "writing" teachers who appears to have limited his practice to that specialty. There is little doubt that Elphinston's instruction was designed for the "adult."

The practical uses of arithmetic were frequently noted by a number of evening school teachers who related the subjects to algebra, geometry, surveying, gauging, trigonometry, "plain and spherical," navigation, sailing, astronomy, the use of globes, maps, planispheres, scales, sliding ruler and "all sorts of mathematical instruments." Others added mensuration, dialing, geography - chronology" (Anania, 1969). Even later the curriculum included "gunnery," conic sections and stereometry, fortifications, fluctions, the theory of pendulums, and the construction of logarithims.

Like most private venture teachers, Elphinston did not discriminate between the sexes. He advertised his instruction as being available to "persons of both sexes." He offered to teach individuals who did not know how to write as well as individuals who possessed a "coarse," "irregular," or "indifferent," hand. His instruction was to be complete in six to seven weeks with one hour of daily instruction. Individuals who knew how to write, but who had a coarse and indifferent hand could be instructed in five weeks. According to advertisements he placed in the New York Mercury between 1765 and 1767 he limited the age of his clients to the 12 to 50 range. His ad placed in the April 1, 1765, issue of the New York Mercury is typical. A part of the ad is quoted below.

William Elphinston

> "Teaches persons of both sexes, from 12 years of age and upwards, who never wrote before, to write a good legible hand, in 7 weeks, at one hour per day, at home or abroad.
>
> Those who write what some people call a legible hand, but at the same time, so coarse and irregular, that it wants to be altered for better, in order to make it fit for carrying on business in a neat agreeable way, may acquire a sufficient degree of improvement in five weeks, at one hour per day . . ."

EVENING SCHOOL HOUSES

The private venture schools of the colonial period, day or night, met in a variety of places. They met just about everywhere and anywhere large enough to house their clients. Some diligent schoolmasters rented large houses that they could use for both living and teaching purposes. Others taught in special schoolhouses, often privately financed and rented to schoolmasters for school purposes. Still others used a variety of buildings and rooms for their classes. One used a sail loft in Philadelphia. Public rooms of taverns and other meeting places occasionally served as classrooms. And, in some instances, the town hall and town school were made available to the evening schoolmaster. It appears that when the latter occurred the evening schoolmaster was usually the teacher in the town school and use of the school building for evening classes was a kind of perquisite.

In 1751, William Milne, of Philadelphia, held classes" . . . in his room up an outer stair, in Albridge's Alley, at the sign of St. Andrew, opposite the shop of Nathan Trotter, Blacksmith, in Second street, between Market and Chestnut street" (Seybolt, 1971). James Lyde of New York City conducted classes at the Custom House in 1730. James Dove of Philadelphia acquired Rock Hall "which is situated in a wholesome air" for the reception of young gentlemen at "board, washing, and lodging" (Seybolt, 1971).

EVENING SCHOOLMASTERS

Evening schoolmasters were as elusive as quicksilver. Contemporary opinions about them appear to be somewhat negatively biased. Cubberly's (1919) work favors the opinion that the private school teachers were not as well qualified as the teachers in town schools.

Since there is a possibility that the common view of the evening schoolmaster presents him as being overly fond of rum, poorly qualified, or overly lecherous, this article presents an alternative view. There does appear to be reason to believe that demon rum or other failures of character afflicted specific schoolmasters. But more important is the stronger evidence that many of the evening schoolmasters were as unflawed as were their peers who taught in the common schools.

Seybolt (1969) gives the evening schoolmasters a good report card. He suggests that there was nothing "peculiar" about these schoolmasters professionally. Representatives of outstanding families such as William Waterland, a brother to the Chaplain to the King of England, operated a private venture school in Savannah, Georgia in 1733 (Long, 1975). Some of the teachers had sheepskins that attested to their educational qualifications. John Walton of New York City graduated from Yale in 1720. Nicholas Pike, of Newburyport, Massachusetts, based his credentials on a Harvard diploma, class of 1766. The City of Brotherly Love numbered John Beard, a graduate of the class of 1759 of the University of

Pennsylvania, among her teachers (Seybolt, 1971).

Holders of degrees from foreign universities were also engaged in private instruction, such as an unidentified graduate of the University of Paris, and Andrew Lendrum holder of a Bachelor of Arts degree from Trinity College in Dublin.

Not only were private schoolmasters graduates of universities, they often returned to universities as teachers. Isaac Greenwood (Harvard, 1721; MA, 1724) of Boston became the the first professor of mathematics at Harvard in 1727. Nathan Prince was also a math teacher at Harvard who taught in private venture schools. Louis Langloiserie was professor of French at Harvard and the Rev. John Peter Tetard kept a private school in New York City before joining the faculty of Columbia in 1784 as a professor of French (Seybolt, 1969).

CONCLUSIONS

There seems to be a tendency to associate adult literacy education with modern America to the exclusion of earlier periods. The evolvement of the moonlight schools and literacy campaigns in the various states in the early twentieth century placed an emphasis on adult literacy education, but those efforts were certainly not the first. The newspapers of the eighteenth century and other sources examined here reveal that adults in colonial America sought to overcome the negative impacts of illiteracy through the evening schools.

There is no way to know how many adults were taught how to read, write and figure by private teachers and evening schoolmasters. The existence of apprenticeship indentures which required masters to provide for literacy education and the great numbers of evening school and private teachers which were advertised in the newspapers of the coastal cities provide evidence that enough people paid for their services to keep them in business.

These observations strongly support the thesis that a concern for adult literacy existed in colonial America. As governmental responsibility for literacy was very limited, it is assumed that the private sector provided literacy education opportunities for adults.

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THE EMERGING ROLE OF ADULT EDUCATION IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

Edwin Hamilton[1]

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe, discuss, and analyze the findings of a study which was conducted on a target group of 14 federal universities in Nigeria during the 1982-83 academic year. The aims of the study were to identify and describe the types of adult education programs in each university, to ascertain the perceptions of personnel as to program objectives, and to determine the program focus and role of adult education in relation to national development goals. The study concluded that role definitions are emerging, in order of priority, in the tripartitie areas of research, training and planning.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The Federal Republic of Nigeria was created in 1963 after many years of colonial rule. The country covers an area of 357,000 square miles with an estimated population of 90 million and a density of 252 per square mile. According to the UNESCO Office of Statistics, (1972), the number of adult illiterates in 1969-71 was 80 per cent of the population.

There has been a long history of sporadic efforts to implement effective adult education programs in Nigeria. In 1951, the colonial government endorsed the first national policy on adult education (Fafunwa, 1974). The specific focus of this pioneering policy framework was the aim to organize facilities for remedial primary education of adults, particularly in the rural areas.

The obvious omission in this early national policy was the specification of the responsibility of the institution of higher education. At the time, there was only one university serving the whole of Nigeria. At the onset of the independence of Nigeria in 1960, there was a dramatic expansion of institutions of higher education throughout the country. All of these newly established federal universities had departments of adult education and extramural studies. In spite of the proliferation of these institutions providing adult education services, the illiteracy rate was not reduced significantly during the 1960's and the combined efforts of all federal agencies yielded a minimum reward (Omolewa, 1979).

In 1969, the National Curriculum Conference was held in Lagos for the purpose of reviving and identifying new national goals for the education of both youth and adults. There were three important recommendations relevant to adult education which came out of this conference. One of which, for the first time, dealt with the role of the universities and other tertiary institutions. This recommendation stated that:

> "The service role of our universities should be geared towards continuing adult education for the masses through evening, weekend, vocation and refresher courses. The

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[1] Edwin Hamilton, Associate Professor, School of Education, Howard University, Washington, D. C. 20059. Former Visiting Fulbright Professor, University of Benin, Bendel State, Nigeria.

> universities should relate more to other levels of education and education agencies." (Federal Ministry of Education, 1970)

The important recommendation specified the service aspect implicit to providing operational programs of literacy education by the universities, but was not inclusive of other functions of the departments of adult education and extra-mural studies as they were currently being carried out.

A new National Policy on Education was adopted in 1977 and revised in 1981. Adult education is described in this current policy as follows:

> "Adult Education and Non-Formal Education consists of functional literacy, remedial, continuing, vocational, aesthetic, cultural and civic education for youths and adults outside the formal school system." (National Policy on Education, 1981).

Although the description of adult education provided in the new policy is broad and inclusive, it is clear from analyzing the objectives of the policy that the central focus of adult education in Nigeria is an literacy education. However, the new policy does not provide a definitive description of the role of the universities in the literacy process.

The National Mass Literacy Campaign was launched on September 8, 1982 by President Alhaji Shehu Shagari. The campaign's stated goal is to "eradicate mass illiteracy from Nigeria in a ten year period." Without question this is an ambitious and somewhat unrealistic goal, in view of the massive dimension of the problems that exists in the country. The forces involved in adult education are numerous and complex in Nigeria. The problem of poor cooperation and coordination of efforts among these forces must be minimized to ensure that an efficient and effective delivery system of literacy education is achieved. Therefore, it is essential that role definitions be formulated to guide the overall direction and magnitude of the literacy education program development and operation. In this regard, it is extremely important that the role of the 14 federal universities' involvement in the literacy process be analyzed in terms of their actual and potential capacity to function at their maximum levels of effectiveness in relation to the national goal of substantially reducing or eradicating illiteracy in Nigeria.

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

A number of federal universities in different parts of Nigeria are actively engaged in relating their resources to various aspects of adult literacy education. Three considerations are involved in carrying out this function. First, is to fully understand the dimensions of literacy education and what constitute the literacy process. Second, is to know in detail what resources are available on the part of the university which can adequately and efficiently apply to the conception and operation of adult literacy programs. Thirdly, what role can the university best play in meeting the challenges of literacy education as it relates to ameliorating the conditions of a huge adult illiterate population?

The purpose of this paper is to discuss and analyze the findings of a study which was conducted on a target group of 14 federal universities in Nigeria during the 1982-83 academic year. The aims of the study were to: 1) identify the type and describe the nature of adult education programs in each university, 2) assess the program objectives as perceived by key department administrators, and 3) determine the overall role of adult education in relation to national development goals in Nigeria.

METHODOLOGY

The population of the study consisted of all federal universities in Nigeria (N=14). In this study, survey research procedures were designed to collect data and describe conditions as they existed. While a portion of the study was concerned with a descriptive analysis of the organization and administration of the various adult education programs, another portion of the investigation attempted to discover conflicts, discrepancies, or congruence between program mission goals as stated and actual program outcomes.

The instrument utilized in the study was an original questionnaire designed to collect data that would help in:

1. Identifying and describing program characteristics found among the departments of adult education and extra-murals within the federal universities.

2. Determining significant differences in the stated objectives of the programs in reference to actual outcomes.

3. To assess the compatibility of program goals with national development goals.

The development stages of constructing the questionnaire evolved in this manner: (a) selection of a series of major questions and sub-questions, (b) generation of specific headings and items, (c) review by jury of experts, (d) revision, and (e) field testing.

The survey questionnaire was mailed to all 14 federal universities in December, 1982. A follow-up questionnaire was sent to all non-respondents in February, 1983. The survey plan also included the provision and recognized the necessity to conduct on-site interviews with at least 50 per cent of the universities.

RESULTS AND SUMMARY

A final return of 12 questionnaires or 86 per cent of the population (N=14) was recorded. Information gathered during the on-site interviews at six universities was recorded on an interview schedule which was developed for this purpose. Complete information was gained from the 12 universities and provided a profile of the adult education programs offered by type at each university. Table I provides a breakdown of variety of programs in operation in the following federal universities: 1) Amadu Bello University, 2) Bayero University, 3) University of Benin, 4) University of Calabar, 5) University of Ibadan, 6) University of Ife, 7) University of Ilorin, 8) University of Jos, 9) University of Lagos, 10) University of Maiduguri, 11) University of Nigeria, Nsukka, and 12) University of Port Harcourt. Table I provides a classification scheme for catagorizing adult education programs according to: a) as an academic discipline, and b) as a field of practice. The Table reveals that seven universities award the degree in the field of adult education. It should be noted that three universities award the doctorate, five award the master's, four award the bachelor's, two award diplomas, and two award certificates. Three of the universities are providing specialized training for Mass Literacy Campaign personnel. This finding indicated that professional training is given high priority by 58 percent of the universities (N=12).

Table I also reveals that adult education is a field of practice in all (N=12) the universities. The extra-mural studies program was found at 11 (91 percent) of the universities, with the single exception being the University of Lagos. Five of the universities have regularly scheduled workshops/seminars/conferences, while only two were engaging in research activities. It should be noted that four of the universities disseminate some type of publication. The fact that 91 per cent of the universities operate community service-oriented adult education programs would suggest that this is a major focus of productivity in terms of actual program outcomes.

On site interviews conducted with 50 per cent of the population sample (N=12) revealed an interesting response to the two questions posed during the interview and recorded on the interview schedules: The questions and responses, in rank order were:

Question I: What are the specific objectives of your department?

Response: Rank 1 Training (N=4)

TABLE I

TYPE OF ADULT EDUCATION IN NIGERIAN FEDERAL UNIVERSITIES - 1983

Adult Education Programs Offered		Universities											
		Ahmadu Bello	Bayero	Benin	Calabar	Ibadan	Ife	Ilorin	Jos	Lagos	Maiduguri	Nigeria, Nsukka	Port Harcourt
Academic	Staff Training (Literacy Campaign)	x				x						x	
	Certificate in AE	x				x							
	Certificate in Trade Unionism					x							
	Diploma in AE					x						x	
	Bachelor of Ed/B.A.			x		x				x		x	
	Master of Ed	x			x	x				x		x	
	Master of Arts						x						
	Master of Philosophy					x				x			
	Doctor of Philosophy					x	x			x			
	External Degree									x			
Practice	Extra-Mural Studies	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x
	Continuing Ed Center		x							x			
	Distance Ed	x								x			
	Extension Service					x	x					x	
	Research (Literacy)					x				x			
	Seminars/Conferences	x				x				x		x	
	Publications			x		x	x			x			

X = in operation

Rank 2	Planning	(N=3)
Rank 3	Research	(N=2)

Question 2: What should be the specific objectives of your department in relation to the national development goals?

Response:	Rank 1	Research	(N=6)
	Rank 2	Training	(N=3)
	Rank 3	Planning	(N=4)

It is interesting to note that there is a significant difference in the order of ranking the responses of the two questions. While training is viewed as the major objective, it also represents the actual outcomes as reflected in programming. On the other hand, the respondents clearly indicated that research should be the major priority in relation to providing the type of needed assistance for the achievement of the national goals of the literacy process.

IMPLICATIONS

Increasingly, universities in Nigeria and the Third World are seeking to identify the role they can most appropriately perform to the process of adult literacy education. Although there is general agreement that the universities do have a worthwhile role to perform in this specialized area of education, there seems to be an emerging consensus of agreement about how the role should be defined in Nigeria.

The data collected and analyzed in the study seems to suggest that the primary role of universities in adult literacy education in Nigeria, as perceived by key department personnel, are in the areas of research, training, and planning.

1. Research: Universities need to be much more involved in the initiation of both action and experimental research. The research component will be most successful when it involves all those who are associated with the educational program.

2. Training: The main purpose of training programs in which universities become involved is to stress the understanding of theories and principles and to emphasize their application. Training must be in relation to research findings about the development of instructional materials and methods of facilitating learning opportunities for illiterates.

3. Planning: The universities are likely to be involved in this component in the capacity as a consultant and not as the initiator or coordinator of the planning process when research and evaluation strategies are built into all aspects of the adult literacy programs.

A more definitive and in-depth articulation of the role identification process would require that additional research methodologies address at least three concerns. First, to examine in detail all of the components which make up the process of adult literacy education. Second, to examine in detail the primary and secondary resources of the universities. Finally, to compare the requirements of adult literacy education with the available university resources and draw useful guidelines for realistically identifying the university's role in adult literacy education.

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FARMING SYSTEMS RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT: A PARTICIPATORY APPROACH TO DEVELOPMENT

Ronald M. Jimmerson
Thomas F. Trail[1]

Abstract

For the past decade, considerable attention has been focused on the plight of rural poor farmers in the developing countries. The majority of development programs have not benefitted the rural farm household. Farming Systems Research and Development (FSR&D) is a new approach that emphasizes on-the-farm research, and its very essence is the participatory relationship developed between researchers, farm households, and extension. FSR offers hope to rural households as a promising development strategy.

The design of this paper is to briefly look into the background that led up to the development of the farming systems approach, the nature and conceptual framework of it as well as its implementation.

BACKGROUND

During the past decade, considerable attention has been focused on the plight of the rural poor farmers in the developing countries. An important way of helping them has been through agricultural research, extension, and related programs specific to their needs. Unfortunately, these farmer's conditions were not improving adequately to meet the needs of the farmers and their respective countries. Foreign policy makers have struggled for the past 40 years in search of an agricultural or rural development strategy that would help improve the condition of the limited resource farmer and to serve as an accelerator of economic and social progress.

Mensah (1974) defines development as the "outcome of a series of quantitative and qualitative changes occurring among a given rural population and whose converging effects indicate in time a rise in the standard of living and favorable changes in the way of life." The ultimate goals of rural development, according to him, are: 1) self-sufficiency in regard to food for the population concerned, 2) the creation of jobs, 3) the diversification of rural activities, and 4) increased per capita income.

Mosher (1972) makes a distinction between agricultural development and rural development. He asserts that agricultural development can be rural development, but all rural development is not necessarily agricultural development. According to him, agricultural development programs are endeavors designed to enhance the economic gain of the farm population through increased productivity. Integrated rural development, on the other hand, is concerned not only with economic gain but also with employment equity, provision of social services, and construction of social overhead capital.

In addition, he points out that the requirement of improvement involves the creation of a "progressive rural structure," that is, a circulatory system that facilitates the flow of goods, information, and support services between the rural sector and the rest of the wider society. The progressive rural structure, therefore, must have as its base a number of complementary components such as roads, efficient extension services, market institutions, research and credit. Crucial problems of poverty, hunger, disease, ignorance, unemployment, and migration to urban centers are those that must be overcome. In most of the developing countries there is a growing realization that the development of rural sector is an absolute imperative in order for a comprehensive economic and social development to emerge.

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[1] Ronald M. Jimmerson, Assistant Professor, and Thomas F. Trail, Professor, Adult and Continuing Education, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington 99164-6230.

Faced with these problems, the governments of the developing nations have, in most cases and in varying degrees, opted for approaches which necessitate direct government intervention in development efforts. Within the African context, two models have been followed: 1) the ideological framework, where the government's political system is reflected in its approach to rural development; and 2) the forced-draft approach, where participants in the rural areas are coerced into participating. The forced participatory approach has not been notably successful.

The United States as well as the majority of both west and east-block countries have pursued the strategy of agricultural development based to a large extent upon a commodity approach. In essence, agricultural "experts" decided that the most effective approach would be to assist countries in increasing production in one or two major crop areas. Examples of these commodities were generally in commodity areas of rice, maize, palm oil nut, cotton, tobacco, and other similar crops. U.S. Technical Systems and the AID efforts literally poured billions of dollars during the past 40 years into many countries to assist them in the increasing agricultural production through the commodity approach.

The affects of this approach were often beneficial in terms of increased production for the major crops; however, the farmers that tended to benefit from this effort were the middle and upper-class farmers who had both the land and capital resources needed to help take advantage and maximize production under the developmental strategy carried out by their respective countries. The small farmer was, in many cases, in a worse position than before the development effort because the scarce commodities and resources that the developing country had were often diverted to the commodity development efforts and the small farmers did not have an opportunity to benefit from the availability of resources at any point in the process. Another disadvantage in using this type of development approach was simply the fact that many of the commodity crops grown were utilized for export. This helped pay the developing countries' balance of payments but increased their dependency upon other countries exporting basic food commodities to fulfill their own respective needs.

In recent years, policy makers have been paying more attention to the problem of the small farmers with the ideas of increasing their production and standard of living. Their objectives are two-fold: 1) to help those whose welfare is materially below the rest of society, and 2) to help a country increase is agricultural production. Leaders in developing countries focus on these objectives; thus, by increasing production on small farmers, they should: 1) improve the nation's self-sufficiency in food production, 2) supply more raw materials for industry, and 3) improve the nation's foreign exchange.

Traditionally, small farmers in developing countries often do not adopt new technologies because: 1) their conditions are not like those where the technologies were developed, 2) they do not have resources to purchase the required inputs, 3) the technologies do not apply to the crops grown or the livestock raised on their farms or the way they operate, or 4) they simply do not know about new technologies. This brought about the formation of a Farming Systems Research and Development Program (FSR&D).

"Farming Systems (FS)" has become the popular catch word of this system that emphasizes on-the-farm agricultural research and development as opposed to the traditional experimental farms. The FSR&D approach starts and ends with small farmers and thereby focused specifically on their conditions and aspiration. Its very essence is a participatory relationship developed between researcher, extension worker, and the farmer and the farm household.

NATURE OF FARMING SYSTEMS RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

The farming system is the complex arrangement of soils, water sources, crops, livestock, labor and other resources and characteristics within the environmental setting the farm family manages in accordance with its preferences, capabilities, and available resources. Farmers manage the household's resources involved in the production of crops, livestock, and non-agricultural commodities (e.g., handicrafts), and they also earn income off the farm.

FSR&D allows researchers to: 1) intensively investigate the individual condition of small farmers, and 2) make an impact on a large number of farmers. Traditional experimental farms are usually located in easily accessible areas, often in valleys or lowlands, or comparatively speaking, relatively high-quality agricultural lands. Small farmers' geographic locations can range from next door to the experimental farm to elevations many thousands of feet higher, or productively very marginal lands and often times in very remote parts of the country. Experimental farms, obviously, have physical and environmental conditions quite different from that of these farmers. Therefore, farming systems selects reasonably uniform physical, biological, and social-economic environments for farmers' cropping and livestock patterns and management practices are similar. Improved technologies developed for farmers in these areas are expected to be applicable to farmers operating elsewhere under similar conditions.

The FSR&D approach typically uses interdisciplinary teams. Their composition varies according to the task. Field teams conduct on-farm research and are aided by: 1) disciplinary specialists and physical, biological, and social sciences; 2) extension specialists; and 3) others concerned with agricultural production. FSR&D focuses on the interdependencies among the components and the physical, biological, and social-economic environments.

FSR&D considers the farmers and their problems in a comprehensive manner using an interdisciplinary approach that compliments existing research and development activities, and is dynamic and responsive to society. Research and technicians representing such disciplines as sociology, extension, anthropology, political science, economics, and the traditional agricultural sciences assist governments in planning and carrying out FSR&D program development and implementation.

FSR&D considers the farmers and their problems in a comprehensive manner using an interdisciplinary approach that complements existing research and development activities, and is dynamic and responsive to society according to Shaner (1982). Educators representing such disciplines as sociology, anthropology, political science, and home economics have assisted in advising governments about FSR&D program development and implementation.

FSR&D is unique from other agricultural research and development programs because of its focus on the combination of these factors. Its study of the farmers' conditions from the beginning through the evaluation of the results keeps their approach as "seeing the whole picture," whereas other research and development programs narrow their focus on very specific criteria.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A natural sequence for the FSR&D process includes: target and research area selection, program identification and development of a research base, planning on-farm research, on-farm research and analysis, and extension of the results.

In FSR&D, the government chooses target areas or target groups of farmers to receive increased attention. Their choices are generally based on governmental objectives mentioned earlier. The target areas are divided into sub-areas according to common physical, biological, and socioeconomic characteristics. By separating these into reasonably homogenous segments, the FSR&D team is able to develop improved technologies for farmers operating under similar conditions.

The FSR&D team identifies and ranks problems and opportunities according to such criteria as the short-run and long-run significance to the farmers and ease of implementation. In doing so, considerable information about the area is gained. From this data, the initial research base for developing improved technology is formed.

First developing an understanding of the resources available, support service, and government policy, the FSR&D then considers opportunities for improving farmers' conditions. The team incorporates the farmer's conditions into the design procedures by working closely with the farmer. They meet with farmers in their fields and learn the farmers' terms or lingo. They also learn how the farm household divides its activities, which members perform which activities, who has responsibility for the different family decisions, who controls which resources, how members tend the family's crops and livestock, and how they market their surplus. Farmers, in turn, take part in the research experiments and evaluating the results.

The team designs record keeping systems, special studies, climatic monitoring, and surveys to provide additional information about the farmers and their environment. Prior to finalizing the final research plan, a preliminary analysis of the possible impact of the proposed technological changes on the farmers and the environment is made. This provides information of likely biological performance, resource requirements, economic and financial feasibility, and socio-cultural acceptability.

IMPLEMENTATION

FSR&D is primarily a modification of existing research and extension methods; therefore, it is adaptable to a variety of situations. A country can implement FSR&D through a government agency, through a ministry of agriculture, apply it to an experiment station, or build it into an individual project. Each approach has its own advantages and disadvantages, so the approach selected depends on the situation. FSR&D does not replace existing research or extension programs; rather, it complements them and builds upon an existing base.

The general approach to FSR&D is rapid initiation of on-farm experiments combined with adjustments in the program's directions as results provide feedback. With adequate planning, researchers often start experiments without missing a cropping season. Under favorable conditions, some research results may be ready for widespread diffusion to farmers within a few seasons. Fundamental changes in farmers' cropping patterns, livestock systems, and managerial practices normally take longer.

EXTENSION OF RESULTS

In FSR&D, research develops new technologies and proves their worth to a relatively small number of farmers. The extension services, or a similar agency, then diffuses the new technologies to as many farmers as practical. This transition phase between research and extension must be effective and thus requires continual communication and cooperation between the researchers and extension.

The term extension designates those agencies whose role is the diffusion of agricultural information. In this case, the primary role is diffusing new and tested technologies to farmers in the target area.

To help bridge the gap between the generation of technology of FSR&D researchers and the diffusion of these technologies by extension a series of specific tasks must be carried out. These include: 1) learning the FSR&D procedures by working closely with the researchers; 2) familiarizing researchers with extension capabilities, needs, and viewpoints; 3) educating extension personnel in FSR&D philosophy and methods; 4) training extension personnel in the application of new technologies; and 5) coordinating the activities between research and extension.

There are two activities in the transfer process that take place before the broad-scale diffusion by extension. The first, multi-locational testing, is when a technology that is developed within the research area is tested broadly in sub-areas within the target area. The target areas and even the sub-areas contain some variability in farmers' conditions. In preparing for the multi-locational tests, the extension staff assists the researchers in finding suitable locations, in adapting the new technology to different conditions in the target area and providing feedback from the farmers to the researchers.

The second activity in the transfer process is the pilot production program. This program tests how the support systems function (supplies of inputs) and the environment reacts (commodity prices) when new technologies are introduced in the area on a relatively small scale. A pilot program is designed to gain information on the adequacy of such factors as local commodity markets, credit, labor, agricultural chemical, equipment, transportation, and information systems. The program provides a final evaluation of new technologies' benefits and costs before introducing broad-scale changes.

Upon completion of this transfer process and acceptance of the new technology, extension's main efforts will be with the broad-scale diffusion among the groups for which the technologies have been designed.

SUMMARY

FSR&D is unique from other agricultural research and development programs because of its focus on the integral programming with farmers. The study of farmers' conditions in the beginning phase of programming to the evaluation of results, keeps the approach as "seeing the whole picture," whereas other research and development programs narrow the focus to a very specific criteria or a commodity approach. Researchers carry out at least 90% of agricultural research under farmer conditions. Extension workers and farmers are involved in the initial planning stages of the FSR&D approach. The basic experimentation under farmer conditions is normally research directed for the first one or two years and then shifts into farmer directed research with a researcher and extension agent as members of the research team. The new technologies and technological components or practices which are proven and adopted by the farmer are then released to extension for promotion with farmers and other similar areas. The FSR&D approach has been successful in a number of Latin American, Asian, and African countries.

The basic success of FSR&D in the developing countries is due to the participatory nature in its program philosophy. Many of the developing countries are finding that increased collaboration between the research centers, universities, and other development agencies plus key farmer groups, will strengthen the development of FSR&D programs to improve the well-being of their nations.

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POLITICAL AND POLICY CHANGES IN ADULT EDUCATION: THE CASE OF GREECE

Aristotle Michopoulos[1]

Abstract

The prime purpose of this study was to examine the effects on education in general and adult education in particular from the recent (1981) rise to power of a socialist government in Greece after 30 years of right-wing governments. A close examination of the policies toward general and adult education during the last decade revealed several commonalities but also some differences between the present socialist and the previous conservative governments. These research findings could be of benefit to adult educators and policy-makers, especially in countries with similar sociocultural and economic characteristics.

INTRODUCTION

In October 1981, the Greek people voted the Panhellenic Socialist Party (PASOK) into power. PASOK's victory came as a shock not only to many Western countries—including the United States where to many socialism is synonymous with communism— but also to many Greeks. PASOK's victory in 1981 was the culmination of a long struggle, which was formally launched in 1974 after the fall of the Greek junta (1967-1974). However, the PASOK movement and its ideology —formulated and best expressed by Andreas Papandreou — was already present, albeit in a milder form, in the short-lived (1963-65) Center Union government of his father, George Papandreou, in which Andreas served as a cabinet minister and member of parliament, and also under the acronym of PAK during the junta period. The 1981 elections were Andreas' third attempt to gain control of the government.

The negative reaction of many Westerners and Greeks to PASOK's rise was basically due to the radical solutions proposed by Andreas to certain internal and external issues, i.e., withdrawal from NATO and the Common Market, "socialization" of certain industries, leftward-leaning policies, etc. PASOK in a way represented the liberal and left-wing forces of Greek politics, which had made unsuccessful bids for power during the past 30 years. A very destructive and divisive civil war which had ravaged Greek political and social life from 1944 to 1950 left deep scars on the country's psyche and PASOK's victory was fraught with fear to the right-wing and conservative elements, while it was cause for great joy among liberals. The reaction, then, when PASOK came to power was apprehension and fear from the right and conservatives and rejoicing and elation on the part of the left and liberals. Today, two years later, when the fireworks of victory are gone and most of its smoke has dissipated, the picture appears quite different. PASOK does not inspire fear in the West or the right and conservative elements in Greece; on the other hand, it is no longer a source of joy to the Greek left or to many of its own party members. However, it has won the tolerance of some conservatives and the acceptance of many right-wing liberals. Overall, the greatest achievement of PASOK's much-heralded allage, that is, "change," was an allage without a shock. Indeed, two years after its rise to power, allage is an overused and abused word, which to some (the left) means no allage at all, while to others (the right, etc.) it means many but insignificant changes.

Since the scope of this paper is not to analyze the politics of the government, it will focus on the adult education sector--as effected through the Ministry of Education--and will attempt to show both where it was changed and where it was left as it was and the achievements and pitfalls in a critical area of new government policy. To better understand the changes in this area between the present and previous governments, we will first examine the policies and successes of each government and then make a comparison of their respective efforts, followed by a conclusion and implications of our findings for other adult education endeavors.

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[1] Aristotle Michopoulos, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Classics, Center for Greek Studies, University of Florida, 3C Arts and Sciences Building, Gainesville, Florida 32611.

POST-JUNTA CHANGES IN EDUCATION (1974-81)

After seven years of dictatorship, Greece was governed for another seven years by the Nea Demokratia party. This party was essentially the successor of the Ethniki Rizospastiki Enosis (ERE) party, which governed the country from 1953 to 1963. Its leader, Constantine Karamanlis had lived in self-exile in Paris from 1963 to 1974 when he returned to the country and his party again assumed the reins of power--through the elections of 1974 and 1977--governing until 1981. Primarily, Karamanlis was concerned with restoring political stability, defusing the explosive Greco-Turkish situation resulting from Turkey's invasion and occupation of part of Cyprus in 1974, and reforming the political system by replacing the monarchy with a presidential republic.

On the educational front, his party proceeded with an "Educational Reform." The major points of this reform (1976-77) were: a. the reinstitution of nine-year compulsory education, which had been reduced to six by the junta, b. the transfer of entrance examinations from the seventh to the tenth grade, c. a more equitable college entrance examination system, d. the expansion of the university system with the creation of two new universities, e. the establishment of a large community college system, heretofore non-existent, to meet the needs of skilled labor and to ease pressures on universities to accept more students, and f. the recognition of spoken Greek as the official language at all levels of government and education. The last item was a real breakthrough if one considers the many struggles--political and otherwise--that marred Greek social, political and educational life from the time of the Greek Revolution (1821).

CHANGES IN ADULT EDUCATION (1974-81)

The adult education sector did not get the full attention of the Nea Demokratia governments, since they were more concerned with rewriting the textbooks in the new official language and other aspects of the educational reform. At any rate, in the area of adult education the government felt its mission was accomplished by: a. appropriating more funds, b. decentralizing the system, and c. expanding the curriculum. Below we will briefly present the main points of each one of these aspects.

Although no exact figures for adult education expenses are available in the Statistical Yearbook of Greece (1981) for the entire period, we still have certain indicators that can assist us in our task. For example, we know that the allocations for the Department of Education are the third highest item in the Greek budget, preceded by the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Defense. Moreover, the rate of budget increase at this ministry is quite a bit higher compared to other ministries. Thus, for the years 1978 and 1980 the outlays for education were 28.08 and 41.41 billion drachmas respectively, while for the Ministry of Defense (second highest) they were 58.43 and 75.02 billion ($1=50 drachmas in 1980 and 100 in Dec. 1983). We see, then, that while for the Ministry of Education the rate of increase between 1978 and 1980 was 45 percent, for the Ministry of Defense it was only 29 percent. Furthermore, in the 1980 Adult Education Annual Report it is stated that its budget was 48.8 million drachmas and the number of students enrolled in courses was 61,905 (Έκθεση Πεπραγμένων 1980, p. 61). With the 211,192 students who enrolled in 1981 (Έκθεση Πεπραγμένων 1981, p. 31), the budget should have exceeded 200 million drachmas, if we also account for inflation. It is also pointed out, however, in the 1980 Annual Report (p. 63) that this budget is quite insufficient with a result that adult education reaches only 1 percent of the total population as opposed to 10 percent for the Common Market countries. Student numbers and budget outlays more than tripled in 1981. This sudden surge in student numbers and funds reflects to some extent the additional funding provided by the Common Market, since Greece became a full member in January 1981.

Administratively, it seems that the government tried to implement a process of decentralization according to its own criteria and so its Adult Education Section sought to allow for autonomous management and organization of its national and local offices. This spirit of freedom and autonomy is further evidenced in the writings of the Adult Education Director of the Ministry of Education. And so, after the 1976 Nairobi UNESCO conference, the government proceeded to change the laws relating to adult education in accordance with UNESCO's "Recommendations on the Development of Adult Education." This reform embodied in the "Adult Education Regulations" passed in 1980 is quite important, to quote Mr. Kehayopoulos, then director of Adult Education: "It is significant that Greece was the first to implement this decision through its adult education reform and the organization of a system with a network covering the entire country." ('Εξελίξεις στήν Διαβίου 'Εκπαίδευση 1981, p. 6). And not only was Greece a pioneer in that aspect, but it also "surpassed UNESCO's decision" in many other controversial aspects, he states (p. 62).

These achievements were again mentioned by the aforementioned director at the Adult Education Conference of the Common Market that took place in Brussels in September 1980. In his subsequent report to the minister of education, Mr. Taliadouros, he states: "We are the first (and only so far) who have reformed our adult education law on modern and original bases." This pioneering spirit is further manifested in his speech to the NELE Pierias (Dec. 5, 1979), in which he supports "the extension of compulsory education to the age of 20, as well as the reduction of working hours for those below that age who work." (p. 5). Finally, the previous administration's optimistic feeling with regard to the adult education endeavor is seen in the remarks appearing in the 1981 Adult Education Annual Report. There it is stated (Έκθεση Πεπραγμένων 1981, pp. 32 & 37) that during 1981 five categories were offered to 211,192 students, with more than 40 courses and 11,260 course sections. These courses were taught by 4,602 instructors, 30 percent of whom were employees of the Ministry of Education, 9.50 employees of other ministries and 58.86 non-government employees. Thus, the report's authors are quite satisfied not only because these instructors "come from various educational backgrounds and specialties," but also because the majority of them (the 58.86 percent who taught 69.65 percent of the courses) were not government employees. "If that trend continues, very soon adult education will be practiced by the people and for the people, which is very significant, because this is precisely its goal: to identify itself with society" (p. 37) the report concludes.

ADULT EDUCATION 1981-TODAY

Against such a background of achievements and optimism, "The Government of Allage" came to power. PASOK's main educational achievement is the new law on higher education. The principal innovation found in this law is the abolition of the chair system and the adoption of a new American-style system, with which both the Prime Minister, Andreas Papandreou, and his Deputy Minister on Higher Education, George Lianis, are both extremely familiar. The Nea Demokratia government had tried unsuccessfully to pass a similar law shortly before this. In the area of adult education, general supervision has been given to the prime minister's son, George Papandreou, a member of parliament. George Papandreou, also a graduate of the American educational system with consideralbe knowledge of the field, made up his own team and is attempting to revamp the whole adult education system according to PASOK's ideology.

As in the case of the previous government, here too we have new "pioneering" legislation. The new legislation adapting and expanding previous legislation was published in the government Gazette in October 1982. With the enthusiasm and energy of the young, George Papandreou and his colleagues have written such "encyclicals" as "The New Goals of Adult Education" and "The Basic Principles and Procedures for the Enrichment of Professional Training Courses," and a book entitled: "Critique of the Educational Policy: 1974-81." Moreover, they organized an international seminar (May 1982) on "Popular Education: International Experiences and Greek Perspectives," the proceedings of which they published shortly thereafter, and in the summer of 1983 they began publishing "Aftomorfosi," (Αὐτομόρφωση), i.e., "Self-learning," a bimonthly publication. Additionally, they began to recruit--both inside and outside of Greece--new adult educators imbued with the ideology of the socialist movement and to develop new, more relevant courses. The new guidelines for the courses suggest that 10-20 percent of course time be devoted to raising the consciousness of the students about the relevance and consequences of the course in their overall development and the social transformation of the country. To illustrate this new approach, we can use the popular sewing course. With the new method 10-20 percent of course time should be devoted to discussing such things as the prevailing market conditions for this craft, employment possibilities after graduation, industry wages and unemployment, possibilities of graduates banding together to form their own cooperative to produce and market their products, etc.

The new team finds the previous "achievements" to be at best minuscule and insignificant. Its aim is a real allage. Such an allage, first and foremost, must seek to raise the students' consciousness, making them active participants in the learning process. George Papandreou, for example, in his speech at the international seminar pointed out that "the aim of popular education is to make each person independent, self-willed and self-governed" (p.23). He went on to say: "We should generally look at adult education as a means of supporting democratic decentralization, democratic programming and energizing the Greek people to undertake initiatives in every area: social, economic, technological and cultural" (p. 24). To achieve this, he adds, they have to train new adult educators imbued with these new pedagogical ideals. In conclusion, he pointed out that "the new forces on which we have to rely are the forces of the people. We must cultivate, liberate and enhance these truly inexhaustible forces. There is no ther way" (p. 26).

Permeating the new team's writings is a call for adult education to be based on such concepts as political socialization, self-learning, self-government and social reconstruction. It advocates a real allage from the old approach of passively transferring knowledge, ideas and values. The new team appears sophisticated, articulate and idealistic, but at the same time its writings are tinged with sarcasm, irony and ridicule for the previous administration. For example, in an evaluation of the previous administration, Frangoulis in his article "Adult Education: The Transformation of an Institution," remarks: "The new administrators (i.e. from 1974-81) of adult education, old-timers from corrupt eras, new feign liberal modernistic ideas, creating bad copies of European originals"(Aftomorfosi, p. 9).

Against the backdrop of the previous administration's promising statistics of 4,602 adult instructors, 211,192 students and 11,260 course sections, Bergides, another member of the new team, pointed out in "The Legal Framework of Adult Education: Changes and Problems" that the old rules were giving incentive to the instructors to increase their teaching load, thus making more money--up to 500,000 drachmas per annum. Course content did not concern them - it could be, for example, judo, soccer, dancing or a craft in a saturated area, e.g. sewing. As a matter of fact, he pointed out, about 50 percent of the courses dealt with sewing, dressmaking and hair-dressing - all saturated areas. Moreover, the courses did not have social value, transmitted passive knowledge and, although on paper they were formulated by committees, including "representatives of local authorities, cooperatives, employer and employee organizations, teachers, clergy and other respected citizens," such committees almost never functioned (Aftomorfosi, p. 15). In addition to this, the previous administrators did not cooperate with other government agencies so that at times an overlapping of services appeared, causing animosity and friction (p. 14).

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

As we have seen earlier, when both administrations came to power, one of the first things they did was to pass a law modernizing the entire adult-education system. Both are quite satisfied and optimistic about their achievements, the results of their initiatives and solutions given to their problems. The new administration with some justification, points out the shortcomings and deficiencies of the previous one, just as the latter blamed the dictatorship for the situation it inherited. We can also observe similarities and differences, in such little things as course content, course selection, student attendance, etc. Thus, despite the addition of new courses by the present government, we note that the courses chosen by the students are almost the same, student attendance has not dramatically increased and the overwhelming majority of students is still female. This shows the real problems of changing attitudes or ignoring needs, as for example the fact that two thirds of the illiterate are women and consequently they need these courses more than their spouses. In addition to the new laws and brave new steps toward reform, to the credit of both administrations, they began paying more attention to education not only by passing laws and sending out directives, but also by expending more national resources on education.

Both George Papandreou and his team are well-equipped for their Herculean task with a very crucial advantage over their predecessors: almost instant access to the highest source of power, the prime minister, who happens to be George Papandreou's father, thereby circumventing parliamentary red tape and bureaucracy.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

After a generation of right-wing rule, the PASOK socialist government promises a "new deal" in many areas, including adult education. The new adult-education team fits the description of "young and restless" quite well, which is just as well as long as they are also realists, good planners and true adult educators, for their task is huge. If they can only eliminate illiteracy, for which they rightly accuse their predecessors, they will have accomplished a great feat. Their dreams of social transformation and reconstruction certainly require time, but above all they must work hard in unity. The latter has been a missing factor in many Greek endeavors. If they transform 2,000,000 illiterate Greeks, functionally and otherwise, into self-learners and active, socially conscious, responsible and participating citizens, following Paulo Freire's tenets, then they will have achieved another great deed.

The pitfalls before them are many and serious. As Bergides notes, even a good legal framework does not ensure or guarantee the function of adult education. "The new regulation could very easily become another prayerbook, another set of beautiful words (and empty to the point that they would not correspond to any specific application), a display window of a bureaucratic government service whose only aim is its reproduction. The avalanche of legal and administrative problems that batter this effort of reorganization and reorientation gives us a taste of the enormous difficulties involved in moving words to action." (Aftomorfosi, p. 15)

Greece is a recently developed country, presenting in many respects the problems and promises of other countries with a similar socioeconomic status, e.g., some nations in Latin-America and Europe and the Third World. Greek success in tackling the problems of education in general and adult education in particular could guide these nations. Of course, they can also learn from Greece's failures. There are precedents for this "imitation process." A similar coup in Chile followed the 1967 Greek coup. Likewise, the fall of the Greek junta in 1974 was soon followed by the military's stepping down in Argentina, Spain, etc. Thus, the Greek experiment can play a pivotal role for other countries with similar socioeconomic and cultural characteristics. A Greek failure to achieve these noble goals might mean a change, either present or future, in another country's course toward social transformation, e.g., Spain or Portugal. Of course, a failure of PASOK's "government of allage" to achieve its goals in the best environment it could find in the past 30 years might mean another allage in the next Greek elections and such a change might very well be against PASOK's allage. Time will tell which allage is going to prevail!

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TO DISCOVER THE MEANING OF EXPERIENCE : THE CRITICAL THEORY OF ADULT LEARNING OF EDUARD LINDEMAN

Stephen Brookfield[1]

Abstract

In the writings of Eduard Lindeman can be found a critical theory of adult learning which predates and anticipates the work of recent critical theorists such as Freire and Mezirow. Lindeman held the purpose of adult education to be to discover the meaning of experience. Adult education was a quest of the mind to identify the roots of the preconceptions underlying individual conduct. This paper examines this critical theory of adult learning and considers Lindeman's use of the concept of andragogy and the socio-political curriculum he devised for adult education.

The generation of a number of theoretical speculations comprizing what can be called a theory of adult learning is generally attributed by adult educators to work undertaken in the last three decades. Hence, the andragogical formulations of Knowles (1978) acknowledge the empirical and conceptual base provided by the research of Houle (1961) and Tough. Freire's advocacy of dialogic, problem-posing education has been hailed as providing the philosophical rationale for a critical and liberating theory of adult learning. In his interpretation of the work of Habermas, Mezirow (1981) has also undertaken to outline a critical theory of adult learning and education.

This paper argues that in the writings of Eduard Lindeman can be found a critical theory of adult learning which predates and anticipates the work of Knowles, Freire and Mezirow by some fifty years. This is not to say, however, that these writers use Lindeman's work as a conceptual foundation for their theoretical edifices. We cannot assume a causal connection between Lindeman's ideas and those of these other writers simply because Lindeman's work preceded their efforts. It is to say, however, that the philosophical questions posed by Lindeman, and the pedagogic and curricular solutions he proposed in response to these questions, sometimes exhibit a remarkable similarity to the problems and solutions discussed by later writers.

The most succinct definition of adult education offered by Lindeman is contained in a paper entitled What is Adult Education? written in 1925. In this piece Lindeman views adult education as:

> " a co-operative venture in non-authoritarian, informal learning the chief purpose of which is to discover the meaning of experience: a quest of the mind which digs down to the roots of the preconceptions which formulate our conduct " (Lindeman, 1925, p.3)

This same paper contained a condemnation of the "merely additive process" characteristic of education in schools whereby the teacher "gets from his students what he has already imparted out of his academic repository" (p.2). Adult education was the antithesis of this additive process and represented "a new technique for learning ... a process by which the adult learns to become aware of and to evaluate his experience" (p.3). The adult learner was not regarded as "merely engaged in the pursuit of knowledge; he is, in short, changing his habits, learning to live on behalf of new motivations" (Lindeman, 1937, p.6).

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[1] Stephen Brookfield, Assistant Professor of Adult Education, Dept. of Higher and Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. NY 10027.

Ascribing to adult education the necessity of furthering the discovery of the meaning of experience, assisting in the critical evaluation of such experience, and attempting to understand the preconceptions underlying such conduct - such sentiments find a ready echo in the writings of current critical theorists of adult education. The chief of these, Paulo Freire, proposes dialogic, problem-posing education as the antithesis of the additive or narrative banking system of education (Freire, 1970). More recently, Mezirow has fused Habermas' emancipatory domain of learning with his own notion of perspective transformation to construct a critical theory of adult learning and education (Mezirow, 1981). At the heart of this theory is the process of "bringing psycho-cultural assumptions into critical consciousness to help a person understand how he or she has come into possession of conceptual categories, rules, tactics and criteria for judging implicit in habits of perception, thought and behavior" (p.20). The philosophical congruence between the ideas of Lindeman and Mezirow is apparent on this particular theme.

Lindeman also emphasized the futurist dimension of education so important to Freire. Repeatedly in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970) Freire affirms the "revolutionary futurity" (p.72) of problem-posing education and he writes that "problem-posing theory and practice take man's historicity as their starting point" (p.71). In a paper written toward the end of World War Two Lindeman declared that "adult education is always futuristic" and "a daring challenge to life that is to come" (1944, p.116). Adult educators were seen as "heralds of the future" (p.117) rather than commentators on history, and the starting point for adult educational analysis was "not history but rather the contemporary situation" (p. 116). Hence, adult education began with the present, demonstrated that present conditions resulted from specific historical antecedents, and affirmed the possibility of humankind to change the future. Again, the similarity between these ideas and Freire's call to educators to stimulate individuals' awareness of the historicity of their situations, and hence their potential for change, hardly needs stating.

Andragogy

Andragogy is currently perhaps the most favored of adult educator's shibboleths. As a shorthand term summarizing a number of central beliefs concerning the unique character of adult learning it has gained great favor ever since its initial exposition by Knowles in the *Adult Leadership* journal in 1968. Although adult education luminaries such as Elias and Houle have challenged the view that adult learning is different in kind to that of children, the concept remains the single most important contribution to attempts to develop a uniquely adult theory of teaching and learning. It is not the intention of this paper to comment on the empirical veracity or explanatory power of the concept of andragogy. It is, however, the intention to show that the term was employed by Lindeman to differentiate adult from childhood learning some fifty years before what is usually considered to be its introduction into the American literature.

In tracing the conceptual and linguistic roots of andragogy Knowles cites a number of Germanic, French Canadian and Yugoslavian sources. His correspondence with Merriam-Webster dictionaries (Knowles, 1980, pp.253-254) reveals that Webster's can find no previous use of the term in English. It is all the more surprising, therefore, that despite the best investigatory efforts of the Merriam-Webster researchers and Knowles, the first use of the term in the English language (that of Lindeman) has remained undetected for so long. In the mid-1920's Lindeman undertook (with Martha Anderson) an interpretative translation of a number of writings about the folk-high school system in Germany. Under the title *Education Through Experience* (Anderson & Lindeman, 1927a) he outlined the methods of the Academy of Labor in Frankfurt-am-Main and early in the work introduced a section entitled "Andragogy". That same year this section of the work was drawn out and published in an issue of the *Workers' Education* journal (Anderson & Lindeman, 1927b).

One of the authors whose words had received interpretative translation as part of the Education Through Experience monograph was Eugen Rosenstock, recognized by Knowles (1978, p.49) as a user of the term in Germany in the mid-1920's, so it is likely that Lindeman and Anderson drew on his writings in their exposition of andragogy. At any rate, in their own formulation of this concept the authors declared:

> " Schools are for children. Life itself is the adult's school. Pedagogy is the method by which children are taught. Demagogy is the path by which adults are intellectually betrayed. Andragogy is the true method of adult learning. In andragogy theory becomes fact; that is, words become responsible acts, accountable deeds, and the practical fact which arises out of necessity is illumined by theory " (Anderson & Lindeman, 1927a, pp.2-3)

Lindeman further elaborates the distinction between the worlds of childhood experience and adult maturity by viewing adult experience as located within the realm of purposeful action. Hence, "between the child and the adult lies the field of action. The adult enters history and becomes a link in the chain of guilt, entanglement, want and pain" (p.3). The attainment of adulthood is represented by a growing awareness of self and by a readiness to make existential choices. The adult learning process is held to constitute "an effort toward self-mastery" (p.3) and this perspective transformational odyssey comes to resemble a Hegelian quest for synthesis through a resolution of thesis-antithesis conflict:

> " The adult comes from public life with his needs and questions; he brings with him a world of unarranged and untested conceptions, terms and elements of education. The rudimentary principle of forceful intelligence is conflict; in adults this conflict is consummated in opposition, criticism, discussion. The adult can only accept when at the same time he eliminates; his education is a living intellectual interchange of the substance of thought " (ibid. pp.3-4)

This exposition of andragogy comes closer to Freire, Erich Fromm and Habermas than it does to Knowles. Knowles uses the term as an empirical descriptor, summarizing what he regards as the chief features of adult learning and developing from this summation a set of teaching (or facilitating) procedures to be used with adults. The language used by Lindeman in his description of the adult's entering history and becoming a link in a chain of guilt, entanglement, want and pain is imbued with a kind of existential angst and recalls the Freirean emphasis on encouraging men's awareness of their historicity discussed in the previous section. In his development of a charter for andragogy Mezirow (1981) emphasizes the fostering of a self-corrective, reflexive approach to learning and the development in adults of habits of critical perception, both of which exhibit similarities to Lindeman's original articulation of this concept.

A Socio-Political Curriculum for Adult Education

In the 1930's and 1940's Lindeman wrote with increasing force and clarity on what he saw as the irreducibly social purpose of adult education. Adult education was to be directed toward the preservation of democracy in the face of demagoguery and dictatorship. Mindful of the appearance of totalitarian, fascist regimes in Italy, Spain and Germany in the inter-war years, Lindeman affirmed adult education to be "the operating alternative for dominance, dictatorship, and violence" (1937, p.6) and "the answer to blind violence and demagoguery" (1944, p.115). Just at the time when Erich Fromm and other Frankfurt school social critics were documenting the Fear of Freedom (Fromm, 1942) instanced by the susceptibility of Europeans to totalitarian regimes, Lindeman urged that the primary task of adult education be to assist adults in making informed choices regarding important social and political issues. In The Sociology of Adult Education (1945a, p.10) he declared that "adult education is integral to the democratic struggle" and that without it "we are subject to the increasing influence of demagogues". Adult education was one means of ensuring that citizens learned to use their collective power wisely through the emphasis on shared learning, shared authority, and collaboratively determined curricula characterizing adult education classes. In World Peace Through Adult Education (1945b, p. 23), Lindeman declared that "the only reliable instrument for establishing confidence among nations is adult education". The neighborhood discussion group was the specific medium through which such confidence would be realized in that it allowed for the combatting of propoganda, for the change of opinion without loss of face, and for the emergence of natural (rather than artificial and arbitrary) leadership.

In the continued emphasis on adult education as a force set against demagoguery, dictatorship and dominance, Lindeman recalls not only Fromm, but also Freire. In his description of the role education played in combatting the process of massification in Brazilian society Freire (1973, p.32) wrote that "a critical education which could help to form critical attitudes" was the task of educators. This acquisition of critical habits of thought would help people to resist the mythical explanations of reality peddled by the various mass media. Nearly thirty years previous to these comments Lindeman had declared that the participation of citizens in informed social action was the hallmark of a democratic society. Since social action was, in essence, the use of force or coercion, such force had to be derived from the application of intelligence and reason. To Lindeman this meant that "adult education thus turns out to be the most reliable instrument for social actionists" (1945a, p.11) since it ensured that any action taken was authentically democratic. The clearest statement regarding the irreducible connection, conceptually and practically, between social action and adult education was contained in the declaration that "every social action group should at the same time be an adult education group, and I go even so far as to believe that all successful adult education groups sooner or later become social action groups" (ibid., p.12).

Following on from this realization of the social power of adult education, Lindeman turned his attention to what should be an appropriate curriculum for adult education. Between 1944 and 1947 he published four articles outlining the role adult education could play in post-war reconstruction. In New Needs for Adult Education (1944) education was conceived as "a mode of social adaptation" which helped adults "to learn how to make important choices reflecting the issues they are obliged to confront" (p.115). More particularly, adult educators had to devote considerably greater attention to education occurring within labor unions. The central curricular question to be addressed by workers, and by citizens generally, concerned the desirability of the mixed economy as the form of economic arrangement most suited to a democratic society. Although not explicit in his own support for the mixed economy in this piece, Lindeman's condemnation of the kind of discussion which led people to make either-or choices between free enterprise and socialism clearly revealed his preference. He felt the creation of "a more tolerant and pluralistic conception" of economic affairs to be "a formidable educational task" but one which provided "an opportunity for adult education and higher education to engage in an exciting mutual enterprise" (ibid.).

A further elaboration of the curricular concerns was provided in The Sociology of Adult Education (1945a). Lindeman identified three issues - "what is to be done about our deep-seated habits of racial discrimination, how we are to democratize our vast educational equipment, how we are to play an appropriate role in world affairs" (p.12) - the discussion of which would "furnish adult education with its program and its mission" (p.13). If ten to twenty adult American citizens were to discuss these questions in an atmosphere of freedom and under the guidance of skilled discussion leaders, then "there would be no cause to fear for the future of democracy" (ibid.).

It is salutary to compare the curricular agenda proposed for adult education by Lindeman toward the end of the war with the program content of the 1970's and 1980's. Three of the four curricular issues identified above are largely absent or, at the very least are severely under-represented, in the curriculum of current adult education programs. Debate on such questions as the merits of free enterprise, socialism, and the mixed economy, or on the erasure of habits of racial discrimination, are rare indeed in public adult education programs. The discussion on how to democratize the stock of educational equipment is felt to be a question for 'professional' educators rather than for community consideration. Finally, the discussion of questions of foreign policy and the role of the United States in world affairs has, since the 1950's, largely disappeared from the curriculum of adult education.

Conclusion

It is apparent, then, that the critical theory of adult learning and education developed by Lindeman anticipated the later work of, among others, Freire and Mezirow. The task of adult education is seen as making adults aware of the historicity of their individual existence and their social environment. In this quest for awareness adults would discover the roots of their personal and social conduct. In his treatment of the concept of andragogy Lindeman stressed the pain of making existential choices which was inevitable to the realization of adulthood. He did not develop the idea beyond its mention in Education Through Experience (1927a) and it was not until Knowles' work in the 1970's that the term was adopted as the conceptual anchor from which was derived a set of teaching-learning behaviors appropriate to adults.

Lindeman argued firmly and unequivocally that adult education was a social enterprise not only through empirical necessity but also through philosophical imperative. The aims of adult education were social in nature and in its fostering of democratic habits of thought and action adult education was a major force set aginst demagoguery, prejudice and dictatorship. These habits were to be fostered moreover through the consideration of certain curricular items - the merits of various economic arrangements, the discussion of the societal use of educational resources, the combatting of habits of racial prejudice, and the international role of the United States.

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SELF-DIRECTEDNESS AND LEARNING CONTRACTS IN GRADUATE EDUCATION

Rosemary S. Caffarella[1]
Edward P. Caffarella[1]

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to continue investigation into the effects of using learning contracts in graduate level adult education courses in relation to the students' perceptions of their readiness and competencies for self-directed learning, their continuous learning activities and their teaching style. One hundred and sixty-three students from six universities were administered pre- and post-tests and a follow-up instrument. Five major conclusions were drawn from the data. In summary, it appears that the use of learning contracts has little impact on students' developing readiness for self-directedness in learning, but does have some impact on developing competencies for self-directed learning.

The ability of adults to be independent learners is one of the key concepts throughout the literature in adult education (Knowles, 1975, 1980; Smith, 1982; Tough, 1971). This concept of independence in adult learning has been studied under a variety of terms, such as self-directed learning (Brockett, 1983; Caffarella, 1983; Kasworm, 1982; Knowles, 1975), self-initiated learning (Penland, 1979), self-planned learning (Tough, 1971), and independent learning (Brookfield, 1981). Independent adult learners are individuals who are able to plan, initiate and evaluate their own learning experiences with or without the assistance of others (Brookfield, 1981; Knowles, 1975; Smith, 1982; Tough, 1971). This notion of independence or self-directedness in adult learning has been studied primarily outside of the mainstream of formal educational practice (Brockett, 1982; Brookfield, 1981; Penland, 1979; Tough, 1971). There have been attempts to integrate this notion with more formal adult education activities (Caffarella, 1983; Kasworm, 1982; Knowles, 1975, 1980; Smith & Haverkamp, 1977).

Boud (1981), Tough (1971, 1979) and Hiemstra (1981) have focused on changes which need to take place in institutions of higher education to integrate the idea of independence or self-directedness in learning into the formal curriculum. The central theme of Boud's edited volume (1981) is that one of the primary roles of the teacher is to assist students to take increasing responsibility for their own learning. Tough (1971, 1979) believes we need to view instructors and students as being equal as persons and increase the student's choice of both what and how they want to learn. Hiemstra (1981) has proposed a formal policy statement pertaining to this idea of self-directedness in learning in relation to the training of adult educators. One possible way of accomplishing this integration of independence in learning with formal programs in higher education is to use learning contracts as part of the teaching process (Berke, 1975; Boud, 1981; Knowles, 1975, 1980).

Caffarella (1983) and Kasworm (1982) have completed studies related to the use of the learning contract for fostering self-directed learning skills of graduate students enrolled in formal adult education course work. Caffarella (1983) focused her investigation on the effect of using learning contracts in graduate level courses in relation to the students' competencies for self-directed learning, their continuing learning activities and their teaching style. She found the students had, from their perspective, increased their competencies of self-directed learning. Almost half of the students had used the competencies developed in personal learning experiences outside of the classroom and about two-thirds had changed or anticipated changing the way they teach. Kasworm (1982) examined the development of self-directed learning knowledge and skills, based on the Knowles model, by graduate students enrolled in two of her graduate courses in adult education. She found significant positive gains were made in self-directed learning readiness and skills as noted in the gain scores of the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), class evaluation and the analysis of observations. However, approximately one-fifth of the students in the study had negative gain scores for the SDLRS.

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[1] Rosemary S. Caffarella, Ph.D., Division Head and Associate Professor, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia 23284-0001 and Edward P. Caffarella, Ph.D., General Partner, Caffarella and Caffarella, 2322 Wistar Street, Richmond, Virginia 23229.

FOCUS OF THIS STUDY

The purpose of this study was to further investigate this theme of the integration of self-directedness in adult learning and formal education by the use of learning contracts in higher education. The study was built primarily on the work of Caffarella (1983) and Kasworm (1982). Five major research questions were addressed in the study as follows: 1) As a result of using a learning contract format in formal graduate courses in adult education is there a change in the student's readiness and self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning? 2) As a result of using a learning contract format in formal graduate courses in adult education is there a difference in students' readiness and self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning based upon selected variables (e.g., content area of course). 3) What are students' opinions related to the value and worth of using a learning contract format? 4) Has there been any change in the way students teach as a result of using a learning contract format? 5) Have the students used the competencies of self-directed learning in personal learning experiences once they had completed the course?

METHODOLOGY

One hundred and sixty-three students from six universities in the United States comprised the population for the study. Three instruments were used in the study. One instrument, The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), authored by Dr. Lucy M. Guglielmino (1981), is a self-report instrument consisting of Likert-type items. It has been demonstrated through previous studies (Guglielmino, 1981; Kasworm, 1982) that this scale is both reliable and valid for both diagnosing self-directed learning readiness and on evaluation of programs designed to increase self-directed learning. Two of the instruments used, the Self-Directed Learning Competencies Self Appraisal Form (SDLCSAF) and the Learning Contract Follow-up Survey (LCFS) were developed by the author. Construct and content validity were verified by a team of experts for these instruments. In the first phase of the study the students completed a pre- and post-test of the SDLRS and the SDLCSAF. The instruments were administered by the professors teaching the classes at the beginning and end of the semester. For the purpose of analysis only 83 matched sets of the SDLRS (51% of the original sample) and 130 matched sets of the SDLSCAF (80% of the original sample) were usable. The loss of additional matched sets was due primarily to the administration of only one of the instruments and students not completing the courses they started. The total population was mailed a LCFS approximately four to six months after the completion of the course with a response rate of 70%. There are two major limitations to the study. The first is the unevenness of response rate as noted above and the second the lack of control groups.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A t-test ($P < = .05$) was used to test research questions one and two. A description of how respondents collectively responded to questions 3, 4, and 5 was done with percentages and data from the open-ended questions. The first major finding was there was no significant change in the students' readiness for self-directed learning as measured by the SDLRS. This same finding also held true when variables of course content, previous course work in adult education, use of learning contracts in other courses, the student's age, and the graduate program of the students were controlled for in the analysis procedures. The students did have extremely high mean scores of 241 on the pre-test and 243 on the post-test of the SDLRS. These mean scores were approximately one standard deviation above the normalized mean.

The second major finding was that there was a significant change in the students' self perceived competencies for self-directed learning in three areas as measured by the SDLCSAF. These included their ability to: 1) translate learning needs into learning objectives; 2) identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives; and 3) select effective strategies for using learning resources. The students' ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives consistently rose to the surface as a competency that students' perceived increased regardless of the course the student was enrolled in, previous course work in adult education, program of study, or age. The change in the ability to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives appeared to be the most influenced by the responses of students who had completed courses in adult development and learning. The change in the ability to select effective strategies was influenced most by students who were presently enrolled in courses in methods of teaching adults, and by students ages 30 to 39.

There were some significant differences displayed, though minor, in the students' self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning based on the content area of the course in which the student was enrolled, the content area of adult education courses students had completed, and the age of the students. The present course the student was enrolled in had the most effect, in terms of differences noted between the whole population and sub-groups within that population, though, again this effect was minor. Two of the variables studied, having taken other courses using the learning contract approach and the graduate program in which the student was enrolled, made no significant differences in the students' self-perceived competencies for self-directed learning.

Overall, the students agreed that using a learning contract format (LCF) in terms of its educational value, was worthwhile. Thirty-three percent believed it to be an excellent learning tool, while 40% believed it to be very good, and 18% good. In terms of eight specific learning processes, the majority of the students either strongly agreed or agreed that the LCF was valuable in formal graduate courses. For example, 50.4% of the students strongly agreed the LCF gave them the opportunity to individualize their own learning; and 47.8% strongly agreed the LCF placed the responsibility for learning more on them than other formats used in formal coursework.

Sixty-six percent of the respondents have changed or do anticipate changing the way they teach as a result of using the LCF, and half of the respondents had used the competencies in personal learning experiences outside of the classroom. Some of the changes noted by the respondents in their teaching include: allowing their students more opportunity to individualize their learning experience; having them develop objectives and time frames; encouraging more class participation; and using a variety of teaching techniques.

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Five major conclusions can be drawn from the findings. The first is that the use of the learning contract had no effect on the student's readiness for self-directed learning. This could be due in part to the very high pre-test scores (a mean one standard deviation above the normalized mean). Based on Brockett's (1982, 1983) comments on the SDLRS, that the scale is "highly oriented toward learning through books and schooling," (p. 19, 1983), it is not surprising that graduate level students should obtain higher than average scores. These higher than average scores call into question the appropriateness of the use of this scale with people of higher levels of schooling, especially those with graduate degrees. This lack of appropriateness may also be related to what the scale is actually measuring in terms of a definition of self-directed learning as noted by Brockett (1982, 1983).

The second conclusion was that the use of the learning contract only had an effect on three of the twelve competencies of self-directed learning that were studied. Students increased their ability: 1) to translate learning needs into learning objectives; 2) to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives; and 3) to select effective strategies for using learning resources. Of these three competencies, translating learning needs into learning objectives appeared to be the most consistent in terms of the increase in that competency. These conclusions mirror an earlier study by Caffarella (1983) where students perceived they had increased their competencies for self-directed learning to a greater degree in two of the three areas listed above: 1) the ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives and 2) the ability to idenify human and material resources. Based on these consistent conclusions, there appears to be certain competencies for self-directedness in learning that can be fostered as part of a formal learning situation and others that in fact may be blocked by this same situation.

The third conclusion was that the changes in students' competencies for self-directed learning based on the content area of the course the student was enrolled in, content area of adult education courses students had completed, the age of the student, having taken other courses using the learning contract approach, and the program in which the students were enrolled were minimal. It appears that the differences that were noted could be traced more to the individual courses and the instructors in those courses, versus any major changes due to the variables studied.

The fourth conclusion was that overall these students believe using a LCF in terms of its educational merit in graduate courses is both valuable and worthwhile. This conclusion does agree with the findings of an earlier study by Caffarella (1983) where students also supported this premise, but the agreement was not as strong. For example, in the earlier study 90% of the respondents believed the LCF to be an excellent or very good learning tool, while only 73% believed so in this study. One of the major values of using the LCF was that it allowed students the flexibility to choose what they wanted to learn. This value appears to be related to one of the three competency areas the respondents perceived as having increased (i.e., the ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives). The other two major areas of value (placing the responsibility for learning more on me, and the opportunity to individualize my own learning) do not speak directly to specific competencies of self-directed learning, but rather they address those assumptions underlying the whole concept of self-directedness in learning.

The final conclusion is that a large number of these students are presently using the competencies they learned through using the LCF in their present teaching situations and personal learning experience both at work and at home. In comparison to Caffarella's (1983) earlier study, the percentages on both aspects are almost identical. The competencies most noted by students in both the teaching area and their personal life are related to goal and objective setting, using a variety of methods for learning, and having a better perspective on time management of learning. In the teaching area they also stressed the idea of responding more to the needs and desires of their students and allowing them to be more self-directed in their learning. Again, these self-reported changes appear to be related to the major gains the respondents made in their self-directed learning competencies.

In summary, it appears that the use of learning contracts in graduate level higher education has little impact on students' developing readiness for self-directedness in learning, but does have some impact on developing competencies for self-directed learning. This raises a number of issues and questions which need to be addressed.

1. If, in fact, we can isolate specific competencies of self-directed learning that can be enhanced through the use of the learning contracts in graduate classes, how can instructors most effectively foster the development of these competencies in students? Or is the value of using the learning contract format more in the teaching of an alternative instructional format rather than fostering specific competencies of self-directed learning?
2. What other types of formats, activities, climate setting and the like could instructors use to enhance other identified competencies of self-directed learning?

3. What should the role be of professors in adult education in furthering the development of students' competencies related to self-directedness in learning? Should professors have this be a major focus or purpose of all course offerings in adult education or would it be more appropriate to stress the development of these competencies in specific courses, depending on the subject matter?
4. If, in fact, we can document that the integration of self-directed learning competencies in graduate programs actually change the practice of students, do these changes really make a difference in helping adults learn and grow?

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A HOLISTIC VIEW OF THE ADULT LEARNER

Judy-Arin Krupp, Ph.D.[1]

Abstract

A holistic view of the adult learner was developed phenomenologically after four years of intensive library, interview and observational research. The theory presents 34 characteristics of adults to consider whenever planning a learning situation for those persons. Concrete suggestions for the application of each characteristic are included in order to answer the question, "How can consideration of this characteristic improve the learning situation for the adult?" The theory rests on the thesis that concern for the adult learner means sensitivity to the needs of the individual person in all aspects of his or her existence. This paper presents part of the theory.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers in the area of adult learning agree that individuals bring to a learning situation their unique past and present as well as their hopes for the future -- some parts of which result in easy and quick learning, and other aspects of which impede learning (Aslanian & Brickell 1980; Cross 1981; Houle 1961; Kidd 1973; Knowles 1980; Knox 1977; Krupp 1982). If we are to maximize learning opportunities for an adult, we must know as much as possible about that person, for we cannot decree change during learning. All we can do is to provide the best possible environment for each learner: An environment that permits learning to be "facilitated and processed in accordance with the multiple . . . roles of all the participants" (Bishop 1976: 139) while it presents necessary content.

Achievement of this ideal learning environment can only occur when time is spent investigating a learner's needs. In order to discover as many characteristics of adults as possible that affect the learner in a learning situation this author has done extensive library research, has interviewed 200 persons and has tested the findings on over 1,000 individuals during workshops. A phenomenologic approach was used to analyze the data. First the natural attitude was taken to identify the actual characteristics revealed by the subjects to affect them during learning as well as their reflections about those characteristics -- the noema and its noetic correlate. The noematic-noetic correlations are the individual's perception of reality. Second, the data was studied using a phenomenologic attitude to locate the thematic invariants. Finally eidetic analysis was done to permit the essences of the data to be revealed as well as the interrelationships between those essences (Ihde 1977; Lauer 1958; Zaner 1970).

The research resulted in a holistic theory about adult learners that organizes and integrates knowledge from personal experience, observation, and such disparate disciplines as biology, education, human development, philosophy, and sociology. Within the theory can be found numerous examples, explanations of phenomena, philosophical assumptions about human nature, values and goals, and concrete guidelines and suggestions for action. The theory must not be fragmented. It is meant to stand as a whole composed of closely related and interrelated parts. Each part, or characteristic, affects and is affected by each other characteristic to bring into being the holistic view of the adult learner.

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[1] Judy-Arin Krupp, Ph. D., Consultant: Adult development and learning, staff development and stress, Director: Adult Development and Learning, 40 McDivitt Drive, Manchester, CT 06040.

HOLISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ADULT LEARNERS

This holistic theory of the adult learner presents 34 characteristics of adults that must be taken into consideration when dealing with a person in a learning situation. The characteristics are divided into seven categories: experiential, physical, role and relationship, personality, developmental, environmental, and learning. Within each category there are anywhere from 2 to 10 characteristics delineated.

The length of this paper precludes a listing of all 34 characteristics, therefore, a few examples will suffice. Within the theory under the category of personality some of the characteristics discussed include:

...Adults behave in terms of what is real to them at the moment.
...Adults need a positive sense of personal worth.
...An adult has a defined personality composed of a stable core and a periphery that modifies with experience.
...Stress is an integral part of existence.
...Adults are located along numerous continua and are constantly affected by the satisfaction of their basic needs in relation to their current location on each continuum.

Within the category entitled roles and relationships characterisitics include:

...Adults respond to significant others in their lives by fixed or tentative concepts.
...Adults belong to many groups and play many roles during a single day and during a lifetime.
...The motivational needs of adults change in different roles, with different developmental tasks, and in different ego and morality states. These needs affect relationships.

Last, within the category of experience characteristics include:

...The adult is the summation of past experiences, but similar experiences may produce different sums and thus evoke different responses to the same experience.
...An adult's self-concept is the product of past experiences and ability to interpret those experiences. The self-concept can be rigid or tentative, and positive or negative in a given situation.
...Through experience and past decisions adults narrow the possibilities open to them in the future(Krupp 1982).

Within the theory each characteristic is documented with research findings and applied concretely to both the learner and the teacher in a learning situation to answer the question, "How can knowledge of this characteristic of the adult improve the learning situation for that learner?" This paper will elaborate on and concretely apply to lifelong learning the first and last characteristics in the above paragraph to demonstrate how the theory becomes a practical working tool for adult educators.

Reality: Adults Behave In Terms of What Is Real to Them At the Moment

"Reality" is defined as a construction in the mind of the individual in relation to some aspect of environment or experience. The construction results from past and present experience and interpretation of that experience. A shared situation does not necessarily result in a shared reality, as evidenced by the diversity in a set of evaluations from people attending the same presentation or class. Not only is the same situation viewed from different perspectives or reality views by different persons but the same person in the same circumstance may also have a changing perception. Whatever the cause, the perceived reality is the truth of that situation to that person at that time.

Each adult's reality base affects behavior and provides a framework against which new learning experiences are tested. Therefore, to help a person cope or learn, we must know how that individual perceives the learning enivornment: the concepts taught, the teacher the location of the presentation, the degree of warmth or coolness in the room, and the teaching style, for example. What is his or her reality? Those who subscribe to this characteristic and who are responsible for lifelong learning programs must attempt to "know" each learner's view of the reality called "lifelong learning." Respect for the learner's view of the learning situation results in the need to create a flexible curriculum, to use different learning styles, to prize each learner's uniqueness, to offer content at a level commensurate with the learner's perception of his or her readiness, to use contracts and competency models, to consider self as a learner as well as a teacher, to provide a safe environment so adults can test their reality base, and to evaluate the student's progress with the learner and use the evaluation as a reassessment of need rather than an ending.

Narrowed Possibilities: Through Experience and Past Decisions Adults Narrow the Possibilities Open to Them in the Future

This characteristic becomes clearer and clearer to learners as they age. For example, career choices are most commonly made by the mid-30s and later career changes tend to occur within a restricted set of options: the truck driver rarely becomes a physician and the physician rarely becomes a mechanic. Few people in their 60s participate as a competitor in a triathalon. People in the second half of life choose carefully the times, places, and people with whom they socialize as they become aware of life's finiteness and the fleeting nature of time. Adults take fewer courses for credit as they age (Krupp 1981).

Experience makes it evident that one cannot do everything one wishes. Past decisions, physical changes, and past experiences have closed doors and result in present limitations. A task of adulthood, one that lifelong learning experiences can help the learner cope with and understand, is to accept those restrictions that cannot be changed and then to ask, "How can the present situation, given the limitations imposed by the past, be adapted to the demands and possibilities of the future?" A woman, for example, who has a family and a job as well as a commitment to a learning program might be helped by being allowed to tape a class rather than attend it. Another student might be encouraged to explore career options during a course entitled "Packaging Yourself For Job Change" because he or she knows so little about career opportunities. A corporation, after considering the price a 55 year old might pay for career advancement requiring a geographic move, might offer a career change in the present locus. These types of adaptions demonstrate respect and understanding for the effect of the past and of age on future desires.

Only when adults have a full awareness of the areas they perceive to have narrowed in their lives can they decide whether or not to change and expand into some of those areas. One individual may decide at age 35 to take some courses in order to gain a salary increase, despite hardships on the family; another may decide not to take the same courses because of a personal need to establish a family. For each learner an educator might ask, "In what areas are his or her possibilities for the future narrowed and in what arenas does the learner perceive possibilities as still open?"

Adult learning experiences must focus whenever feasible upon areas within which the individual student perceives possibilities as still open. For example, " I can still play tennis doubles so I signed up for a tennis course." or "I look forward to renewing my skill with a potter's wheel in the new course at the high school." Sometimes, however, the teacher needs to create, expand or develop an awareness of possibilities for the learner. Some learners need help answering the question, "What are some feasible goals and means to those goals for me?" These adults need help in ordering priorities and in self-awareness. Using values clarification and counseling techniques as teaching methods might help the adult both increase his or her repetoire of future possibilities and gain self-insights. Another equally effective approach might be exposing the learner to materials that discuss borad options and to people who have effected changes at unusual ages or in novel ways. For example, a housewife who learned to manage a home computer at age 62 or a book describing the benefits of swimming to an arthritic. The book might be particularly helpful if the arthritic learner has always been a non-swimmer. Those who subscribe to this characteristic will create a learning environment in which adults can not only explore possibilities they perceive to be open to them in the future but can also discover new arenas for investigation.

CONCLUSION

With a thorough investigation of each characteristic within this holistic theory a reader will have greater insights into the needs of adult learners as well as concrete suggestions for techniques to use to teach the whole person. A comprehensive discussion of the entire theory can be found in the book by the author entitled *The Adult Learner: A Unique Entity* available from the author.

Planners often decide upon the learning program to which others are to be exposed. Seldom is a thorough understanding of learning or the learner applied to maximize the unique personal growth of each adult and thus improve program effectiveness. As long as the adult's world is viewed only as learning centered, family centered, or work centered learning is not maximized. The world of the adult must be seen as encompassing at-work, outside-work, during-learning, and separate-from-learning existence. Concern for the adult learner means concern for the individual as a person in all aspects of his or her existence. It is upon this thesis that the theory rests.

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STRUCTURED JOURNAL WRITING AS A TOOL FOR LIFE INTEGRATION: IRA PROGOFF'S INTENSIVE JOURNAL

James E. Middleton[1]

Abstract

Informal personal journal writing is a long-established tool for chronicling life experiences. However, most journal writing is unstructured and offers few guidelines for integrating learning and experience. This paper examines how Ira Progoff's Intensive Journal, a journal writing system using both rational and intuitive, metaphoric processes, offers both a model and tool for exploring one's own life as a means of lifelong self-education and lifelong life integration.

Lifelong education programs often have difficulty developing continuity and integration. Integrating additional learning with past learning or creating a coherent whole out of existing elements is often more than lifelong educators choose to tackle. In response to this challenge, I would like to consider how structured journal writing (regular private writing designed to help writers think, explore, discover ideas, and inquire) can serve as a model and tool for the individual learner and lifelong educator's facilitating such integration. In particular, I will focus on the Intensive Journal developed by the psychologist Ira Progoff as a journal technique with a highly refined methodology and support network for such integrative journal writing. While this presentation does not highlight "hard data" as other conference papers might, it does present important philosophical challenges and guidelines which can inform and improve lifelong education programs.

Structured journal writing has several characteristics which make it uniquely appropriate for integrating otherwise fragmented lifelong experiences and learning. Even though most schooling traditionally treats writing solely as a tool for communicating or recording the known, writing can do much more than transcribe objectified knowledge. With guidance and support, individuals can use writing as a catalyst for learning and integration instead of merely as a fossilized footprint of previous learning. Many researchers document the strong bond between language and thought, writing and learning. Lev Vygotsky (1962), an influential Russian linguist, stated, "Thought is not merely expressed in words; it comes into existence through them." (p. 125) Janet Emig (1977) builds on this concept to claim that, "Writing represents a unique mode of learning -- not merely valuable, not merely special, but unique." She goes on to find a close parallel between successful learning and writing since both processes provide reinforcement and feedback, are connective and selective; use propositions, hypotheses and summaries; and are active, engaged and personal. (p. 125) While writing in general can support learning, journal writing, especially the structured journal approach in Progoff's Intensive Journal, can be a significant integrating tool for lifelong learning. Both A. R. Luria's (1976) classic study of literacy and thought patterns of Russian peasant groups and Jack Goody's (1977) linguistic anthropology theories claim that how and what we think are closely tied to the language structures, particularly written structures, we use. Progoff's Intensive Journal provides a variety of meaning-making structures which stimulate different avenues of thought and which can integrate and direct one's life and lifelong education.

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[1] James E. Middleton, Director of Humanities and Communication Arts, Williamsport Area Community College, 1005 West Third Street, Williamsport, PA, 17701.

Commitment to lifelong learning assumes that learning is not a one-time phase which individuals get through, but an on-going process of growth and redirection. As a psychologist, Ira Progoff began with a similar assumption in searching for means of helping individuals develop their personal selves. Over twenty years ago, he developed guidelines for a psychological workbook whose basic methods could be learned in a large group, which individuals could continue independent of a therapist, and which could avoid the problems of transference (the difficulty of breaking the bond with the therapist). This psychological workbook evolved into the Intensive Journal and an international network of workshops to support training and application of his journaling techniques. What is exciting about Progoff's program in our context is not that it offers another series of self development workshops but that his techniques shed light on general approaches for integrating vast varieties of lifelong learning and experience. Progoff's method derives much of its distinctive power from tapping non-rational mechanisms, what some call right-brained processes. While our Western culture praises reasoned, statistical, data-based conclusions, much knowledge and considerable wisdom comes from intuition, feeling, imagery and metaphor. Before this sounds like heresy in the midst of a research conference, let me appeal to a popular research document which comes to the same conclusion. Peters and Waterman, in their best seller, In Search of Excellence (1982), find that business and industry are often limited because they overemphasize reasoned approaches while neglecting intuitive ones.

> Our imaginative, symbolic right brain is at least as important as our rational, deductive left. We reason by stories at least as often as with good data. "Does it feel right?" counts for more than "Does it add up?" or "Can I prove it?" (p. 55)

> "...a wealth of experimental data, now thousands of experiments old, (shows) that people reason intuitively. They reason with simple decision rules, which is a fancy way of saying that, in this complex world, they trust their gut. We need ways of sorting through the infinite minutiae out there, and we start with heuristics -- associations, analogues, metaphors, and ways that have worked for us before...only the intuitive lead...will help us solve problems in this complex world. This is a major advantage of man over computer.... (p. 63)

Progoff's Intensive Journal provides heuristic structures which nurture such analogic, metaphoric, intuitive levels to stimulate integration and bring wholeness out of what Peters and Waterman call "the infinite minutiae out there."

INTENSIVE JOURNAL AS METHOD

The potential of journal writing is often wasted. Inadequately presented, journals can actually elicit negative responses. As George F. Simons (1978) states,

> Journals are recommended ad nauseum in a wide variety of (academic) courses to the point that one suspects that there will soon be a reaction against them especially where they are used without the kind of care which preserves the privacy and integrity of the student who is asked to employ the journal as a learning tool.(p. 84)

Progoff's Intensive Journal offers that "special care" not only through underlining the importance of the individual writer's privacy but through systematic steps which enrich the journal writer's work with his or her self. As a method, Progoff's Intensive Journal differs from traditional journal writing in which writers keep regular or daily entries with a free, open, private style. Such journal writings is currently popular in writing courses, but most teachers and writing texts offer shallow suggestions for supporting effective private, self-exploratory writing. Most college writing texts offer students little more than a definition of a journal as a place for private, free writing, a suggestion that regular writing will be rewarding, and a range of potential writing topics. Progoff's journal, on the other hand, offers systematic, organic links between various entries, cumulative insight and a variety of modes of thought or investigation.

The Intensive Journal is a rich and complex system for journal writing which can be fully appreciated only through close study of Progoff's writing (1963, 1975, 1980, 1983) or attendance at a "journal workshop." The Intensive Journal is physically a ring divider sectioned notebook, each section with its own content and style. Dated entries are made in each section, and paper is added to expand sections as needed. While there are 24 total sections in the journal, the essence of the system is contain in 14 sections covered in an introductory twelve-hour Life-Context Journal Workshop. In general the system includes four major processes or styles of entries. I will briefly describe each (in terminology slightly different from Progoff's) and provide an opportunity to experience some of these processes.

The first process is CATALOGING (inventorying or recollecting). In cataloging, journalers write objective, non-judgmental lists or descriptions of items relevant to a particular segment or topic. Cataloging, a more rationally controlled process than many others in the journal method, is concentrated in several sections of the journal. In the Period Log, journalers list persons, events, works, beliefs, relationships and social/cultural ties which define their personal "now" period. In the Daily Log, journalers record their daily experiences, highlighting thoughts, aspirations and feelings that were particularly powerful during the day. In several sections of the Life/Time Dimension, writers develop the data of their own autobiographies. Entries range from the time-compressing view of Steppingstones which lists major signposts of one's life history, to detailed descriptions of remembered experiences in the Life-History Log, to explorations of possible future directions in Intersections where journalers examine crossroad experiences in their lives. Cataloging is also included in the Depth Dimension sections which concentrate on metaphoric or symbolic avenues of understanding. In the Dream Log, writers record memories of sleep dreams; in Twilight-Imagery Log, journalers record meditation images often guided by oral readings which set the tone for meditation.

One can briefly capture some of the cataloging process through two exercises modeled on the Period Log and Steppingstones. Spend just a brief moment considering "Where am I now in my life?" "What makes this stage of my life unique?" Write out a brief list of names or key words that capture the following: What persons have been important in this period of my life? What works or activities? What events? What changes in my body or physical experiences? What social groups, agencies or beliefs have been important? List these briefly. To simulate the Steppingstones exercise, consider your entire life rather than just your "now" period. Number your paper from 1 to 10, and next to each write out a few key words that define the steppingstones of your life, the key periods or stages you have gone through. Begin with "I was born," and then, and then, until your list is filled.

These cataloging exercises bring two results. They collect data which can be explored more deeply in other journal exercises; but, more importantly, cataloging repositions the writer in the midst of specific issues and remembrances, making past events and feelings more present for consideration and exploration.

The second process, HEADLINING, guides journal writers to develop single sentences or brief statements which define a particular issue, time period, or relationship. Headlining is often an intermediate step between cataloging and exploring, for it requires the journal writer to pull diverse material into a single summarizing statement which can then be expanded in later more-detailed investigation.

Another brief exercise modeled on the Period Log can demonstrate the headlining process. Review the list of persons, events, works and other material that described your personal "now." Reconsider all that the present period of your life has been. Write a brief headline statement which captures the tone or spirit of this period. This statement might take one of the following forms, "Now is a time when _____, Now seems like _____, When I think of my present, I _______." These headlining statements are partially designed to guide the journal writer to generalize from data and feelings, but more often are used as starting points, first attempts at generalizations, which may be adjusted or even negated in following entries.

The third process, EXPLORING or investigating, guides the writer in detailed, though not necessarily consciously controlled, exploration of periods, relationships or issues. Progoff's method does not equate exploring and analyzing. The method invites the journaler to explore, expand and investigate but to avoid explaining or analyzing feelings, images or events. Symbolic exploring occurs in the Depth Dimension as the journal explores how dreams and meditations might have continued and in the Inner Wisdom Dialogue through developing the script of a conversation with a trusted figure who represents wisdom to the writer. A distinctive exploring process is found in the Dialogue Dimension sections where individuals write scripts of hypothetical open conversations with different relationships which shape life experiences. Dialogue sections are set aside for dialogues with Persons, Works, one's Body, pivotal Events, and Society groups, beliefs or movements. The dialogue exercises open up new perspectives on issues and help the writer break down subject/object barriers. Though Progoff's dialogue sections require some important preliminary activities, the main thrust of dialogues can be gained through writing out the script of a hypothetical conversation between you and some personified work that is important to you. This "work" many be your career, hobby, long-desired but unattained job, or particular job project. Dialogues are particularly useful for life integration as they connect the writer with dynamic processes at work rather than isolating the writer as an observer of static events. These dialogues help individuals establish within the journal a personal, though not always warm and friendly, exploratory "relationship" with individuals, activities, events, and other elements which have shaped and continue to shape their decisions, options, and self.

The final journal process is LINKING. Throughout the many sections of the journal, the journal writer is asked to note connections to other sections, issues or problems. At the close of any entry, journalers are challenged to ask themselves, "Where else in the journal (in my life experience) does this entry lead me?" This challenge to link and integrate often leads an individual to a section whose style nurtures a different mode of thinking which is often more productive than that characteristic of the beginning point.

JOURNAL AS NETWORK

In addition to being a technique, the Intensive Journal is an educational network. Through the sponsoring organizations, Dialogue House and the National Intensive Journal Program, hundreds of Journal Workshops are offered each year in this and other countries by certified journal consultant trained in Progoff's methods. Individual can use the journal independently to integrate their various lifelong learning experiences. Though advanced workshops or repeated attendance at the basic workshop, the national network is a resource for continuing and extending the integration and personal exploration effort.

While the National Intensive Journal Program operates as its own lifelong education system, many lifelong education groups contract with the program to support their own efforts. Churches, colleges, corporations, self exploration groups, and government jobs programs have all sponsored workshops. As a journal consultant myself, I have offered workshops to the general population at a community college, for a special class for physically and mentally handicapped students at a community college, for an Army chaplain's school, for a holistic well-being group, for a church group and for a graduate student fellows program for a noted university. In these various settings, the journal techniques have shown me students empowered to interrelate their past experiences and relationships and to use these exploration to chart possible courses for their various futures. Other have used the process to help prison inmates pull their lives together. Many elderly have found the techniques and workshops particularly enriching for bringing special meaning to their lives as they look back. Individuals who used the process as part of a counseling component of a federally funded jobs program were able to integrate their job experiences with the rest of their life experiences and priorities.

IMPLICATIONS FOR LIFELONG LEARNING

The Intensive Journal has offered me a special challenge as an educator and as a lifelong learner. It has challenged me to see my own day-to-day experiences as part of a continuous process rather than as discrete momentary experiences. As an educator, it has challenged me to search for ways of integrating, connecting and interrelating elements of the educational programs my students pass through. The methodology and outcomes of Progoff's Intensive Journal should challenge all those active in lifelong learning and lifelong education to develop other similar integrative tools, to use his particular available tool, or otherwise help learners develop meaningful wholes out of their varied experiences. Such a vision can help us see that bringing together and understanding what we have already learned and experienced is at least as valid as adding new learning.

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Additional information on the Intensive Journal can be obtained from The National Intensive Journal Program, Dialogue House, 80 East 11th Street, New York, NY 10003.

TEACHING READING IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Deborah A. Evans
Eunice N. Askov[1]

Abstract

ABE students provide a rich source of information for program development. A survey was conducted to determine students' reasons for attending; length of attendance; sources of motivation; most helpful materials; most helpful instructor characteristics; and plans after completion. From the literature and the survey data the investigators concluded that ABE programs which include technology would be beneficial. The development of computer courseware for an adult literacy program is described. Included is an outline of ten literacy modules which focus on survival vocabulary and reading skills.

The Adult Basic Education (ABE) legislation, currently funded for $86.4 million (Washington, 1983), has enabled communities and organizations to develop a wide array of adult literacy programs. While ABE might be considered a relatively new phenomenon in the education world, it has received much attention; many questions about ABE programs and ABE students have been raised. Some questions are: Why do adults elect to enroll in ABE? What motivates adults to persevere, remain in the programs? What goals beyond ABE do the students have? How much time do the students devote to ABE classes and assignments? What ABE classes are adults taking? In what ways are the ABE instructors most helpful? These are but a few of the questions confronting practitioners in ABE programs. As the ABE programs develop and the research in this facet of education expands, practitioners are faced with the task of finding answers through which they will be better able to develop quality ABE programs.

A cursory review of the literature offers many alternative answers or explanations for several of the questions. The question of what motivates an adult to enroll in ABE is one example. The enhancement of job opportunities was the initial impetus for ABE legislation (Weber, 1975), yet Weber noted that "...two thirds of a nation-wide sample in 1972 attended to improve educational status" (p. 151). Vocational orientation, self-improvement, improvement of the parent image, maintenance or improvement of social status, religious needs, and acquisition of citizenship skills are factors/motivators suggested by Bowren and Zintz (1977, pp. 13-16). Herem (1978) adds: "support of leisure time activities; environmental problems; and life problems, interests, and inquisitiveness and self-actualization" as possible motivators (p. 8). Fingert (1982) suggests the independence that comes with reading as a motivator.

Motivation to remain in the ABE programs is another critical issue. It has been suggested that the motivation is a highly individualistic factor (Bowren and Zintz, 1977, p. 18). Herem (1978) theorizes that the..."original motive or reason for learning becomes the goal. Something in the learning process must take over to keep the original motivation alive..." (p. 9). Focusing programs on high interest materials which have application in everyday life needs is recommended by Manning (1978). Friedland (1979) states that internationally those literacy programs which had the lowest dropout rates were those projects which were vocationally oriented and directed toward women.

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[1] Deborah A. Evans, Reading Supervisor, Williamsport Area School District, Williamsport, PA
Eunice N. Askov, Professor of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA

In reviewing the question of the ABE curriculum, Irish (1975, p. 125) states that a great deal of emphasis is placed on the development of reading and arithmetic skills rather than subjects such as health, consumer education, and coping skills. Ulmer (1974, p. 54) suggests that programs should focus on the needs of participants as they perceive them. The Adult Performance Level (APL) research was designed to identify those skills which adults need to function in society; thus, basic skills in the areas of consumer economics, law and government, community resources, health care and occupational knowledge have become key elements in many ABE curricula (Fisher, et al., 1980). Askov, et al. (1971) suggests that an individualized skills oriented program would be an appropriate approach for an ABE reading curriculum.

ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS

While ABE practitioners, must be knowledgeable of the research and theories within the field, they have an additional resource, rich in information, from which ideas may be drawn in developing the programs. This resource is the ABE student population. Through a careful analysis of students' needs, desires and goals, ABE practitioners are better able to develop ABE programs. To capitalize on this source of information a survey was developed and administered to 35 participants in two ABE programs, one in Williamsport, PA and one in Lancaster, PA. The survey, composed of 18 questions, focused on information such as: length of time students have attended ABE; number and type of classes students attended; reasons for attending ABE and sources of encouragement to attend ABE; most enjoyable aspects of ABE; most helpful materials and most helpful instructor characteristics; and plans after completion of the ABE program.

Sample

The survey was administered to 35 students; of the total sample 15 Caucasian, two Black, 14 Asian, and four Hispanic were surveyed. Thirteen students were between 15 and 25 years old; 12 were between 26 and 35 years old; four were between 36 and 45 years old; three were between 46 and 55 years old, and one was over 65 years old. Nineteen students were female while 16 were male. A total of 19 students were married while 16 were single. Of the sample 24 were unemployed while 11 were employed.

The survey items and responses were read to students by the ABE instructors. Students were instructed to listen carefully to each question, the possible responses and to circle the answer or answers which were true for them. Students were told to answer only those questions which they wanted to answer.

Survey Conclusions

1. More than half the students enrolled in the ABE programs, 54%, had been enrolled from one to six months; thus the ABE program was relatively new to them. The remaining students had been enrolled for various lengths of time, indicating a motivation to continue their education.
2. When students attend ABE classes, the majority, 94%, stayed between one and two hours.
3. A variety of reasons motivated the students to attend. Among the most frequently cited reasons were: personal satisfaction; improving of writing and reading skills; and learning English.
4. The majority of students surveyed, 91%, were not paid to attend ABE. Therefore it must be assumed that motives other than financial payment compelled these students to attend ABE classes.
5. A majority of students, 80%, missed classes between January and April; family matters, health problems, and the weather were listed as the factors which caused absences.

6. Students found ABE instructors helpful for a variety of reasons: being very understanding; teaching content students needed for self-improvement; and making students feel good about themselves were the most frequently cited characteristics. Making the classes interesting was not listed among the most helpful characteristics of the instructors.

7. Students found materials which were independent activities to be the most helpful. Materials which were easy to understand was also listed as an important characteristic.

8. A majority of students, 63%, spent between one and two hours per week doing classwork outside of class. This additional classwork was most frequently done at home. Most students appeared to be willing and able to do some additional work.

9. Learning new skills was cited most frequently as the aspect of ABE students most enjoyed. Satisfaction in learning appeared to be an important factor.

10. A variety of people provided encouragement for students to continue in ABE. Self-motivation was listed most frequently as the source of encouragement. Other sources included parents, friends and spouses.

11. A majority of students planned to take the GED program or look for better jobs after completing ABE.

The variety of information obtained led us to conclude that each ABE program should carefully survey its own students. Perhaps through a careful analysis of students' responses program developers would be better able to determine the needs of students and thereby better create programs of high value to students.

TECHNOLOGY

The analysis of the survey data demonstrated that ABE students found materials which involved independent activities to be most helpful; had a variety of attendance patterns; were periodically absent throughout the program; and had attended for differentiated lengths of time. Based on this information and a review of the literature, the investigators concluded that an ABE program which incorporated technology might prove to be very beneficial. The technology would provide: flexible planning; flexibility in hours attended; record of individuals' work; ability for individuals to begin each session at the point where s/he had ended the previous session; and individualized instruction.

One need only to scan recent journals to recognize that technology in the form of computer assisted instruction (CAI) and computer managed instruction (CMI) has been implemented in K-12 curricula and has been demonstrated as effective. A meta-analysis of 51 secondary and college computer-based instructional (CBI) programs has demonstrated that: "CBE can improve student learning, the average effect is to raise student test scores from the 50th to the 63rd percentile; student attitudes toward the subject being learned and student ratings of the quality of instruction are slightly more favorable with CBI;...and CBI has been reported as saving anywhere from 39 percent to 88 percent of student learning time." (Kulik, 1983, p. 21). Walker (1983) in his review of microcomputer use lists several potential contributions from the use of microcomputers. Among the contributions are: "more active learning;" "individually tailored learning;" and "more independent learning." (pp. 103-107.)

When considering the nature of the adult learner, CAI and CMI appear as tools which would facilitate learning. Cox (1982) supports "learner controlled instruction, LCI" as a systematic adult learning model. Synthesized from several learning theories, LCI characteristics:" allow the learner to pace the speed of instruction, accommodate for individual differences; and provide immediate and continuous feedback" (p. 91). Manning (1978) sugggests that materials for remedial adults are most effective when they foster active student participation.

In reviewing adult literacy programs, the literature demonstrates that the military has developed CAI and CMI programs. Some of the programs are Basic Skills Learning Systems

(BSLS) and the more modern version, Performance Related Enabling Skills Training (PREST) (Stolte and Smith, 1980). According to Smith's (1980) historic review of the military literacy movement, the uses of CAI and CMI were predominate trends during the 1970's and ill continue as trends during the 1980's.

McCullough (1981) describes a telephone survey of 20 randomly selected state ABE programs. The survey was conducted to determine the extent that multimedia hardware and programs were used in ABE. The number of programs reporting the use of computers was one (p. 68). In the trends for ABE programs during the 1980's McCullough suggests that, "New areas of instructional technology will be developed and used, such as microprocessors and videodiscs that will not take the place of the instructor but will help learners at basic cognitive levels where repetition and rote memory are important..." (p. 71).

Literacy Courseware

Cole, et al. (1983) have described the ten-week development of computer courseware (CAI) for use in adult literacy instruction. The ten modules, developed in Western Australia for adult immigrants, emphasize survival vocabulary and reading skills. The modules, representing a sampling along a continuum of very easy to more complex literacy tasks, are as follows:

1. Computer usage (to teach use of the number keys, *Return*, and *Delete*; how to *press* and *type*).
2. Matching of survival words in different type faces.
3. Survival words (matching pictures and words).
4. Survival words (matching words with numerals and colors).
5. Survival words used in simple 2-sentence cloze exercises.
6. Survival words presented in categories; student selects the one word that does not belong.
7. Form filling.
8. Sight vocabulary (taped story presents words which are then taught by configurations).
9. Word families - *ake*, *an*, *ile*, *ight*.
10. Sentences (cloze).

While significant results from a one-week experimental period were not obtained, trends in a positive direction were observed, using a survival words vocabulary test as a criterion measure. With continued funding, plans include computer management of instruction (CMI) as well as use of an audio input system. The computer will be used for the tasks that it performs best; existing ancillary print material will be keyed to the reading skills to provide additional instructional materials.

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EDUCATIONAL CREDENTIALS IN EMPLOYMENT: A NATIONWIDE SURVEY
(PRELIMINARY REPORT)

Andrew G. Malizio
Douglas R. Whitney[1]

Abstract

The purpose of the nationwide survey described here was to determine the role of educational credentials in the employment practices of companies and institutions in the private sector. Nearly 1,500 members of the American Society for Personnel Administration were asked to indicate the emphasis placed on educational credentials in their company's employment practices and to rate the importance of various skills and attitudes for most adults employed at their company in jobs that require not more than a high school diploma or equivalency credential. Preliminary results of the survey are described in this report.

During Fall 1983, a nationwide project Educational Credentials in Employment was conducted by the American Council on Education's Office on Educational Credit and Credentials and co-sponsored by the American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA) and the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) (Note 1). The major focus of the survey was on the emphasis that employers place on educational credentials and whether employers make a distinction between a traditional high school diploma, a high school equivalency (GED) credential, or alternative degree program certificates in their hiring or promoting of employees. In addition, employers were asked to indicate the importance of selected skills and attitudes for most persons employed at their company in jobs that normally require not more than a high school diploma or equivalency credential.

During September 1983, a random sample of 1,499 ASPA members received a cover letter describing the project, a one-page survey (front/back), and a business reply envelope. The person primarily responsible for hiring in the company was asked to complete the survey. A follow-up mailing was conducted during October 1983. Practices of individual companies will not be reported.

RESULTS

A total of 643 surveys (43%) were returned. In order to establish the scope of the responses, employers were asked to indicate their company's Standard Industrial Classification. As shown in Table 1, most respondents were from manufacturing or service industries.

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[1] Andrew G. Malizio, Senior Research Associate; Douglas R. Whitney, Associate Director, American Council on Education, Office on Educational Credit and Credentials, One Dupont Circle NW Suite 20, Washington, DC 20036.

Table 1
Standard Industrial Classification of Respondents

INDUSTRY	PERCENT OF COMPANIES	PERCENT OF EMPLOYEES
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	1	1
Mining (e.g., metal, oil & gas extraction)	3	2
Construction (e.g., building, contractors)	1	6
Manufacturing (e.g., food, textile, chemical)	39	31
Transportation, communication, electric gas and sanitarty service (e.g., railroad, local and suburban transit, water transportation)	8	10
Wholesale and Retail trade (e.g., foodstores general merchandise, eating and drinking)	5	3
Finance, insurance and real estate (e.g., banking, security and commodity brokers)	15	13
Services (e.g., hotels, personal services)	20	23
Public administration (e.g., public order, public finance, taxation)	5	6
Nonclassifiable	3	7

Preliminary analyses indicate that overall, the responding companies probably under-represent the number of wholesale and retail companies nationally. The number of finance, insurance, and real estate companies is slightly over-represented (Bureau of Census, 1983).

Number of people employed

The number of persons employed by the companies ranged from a low of two to a high of thirty-five thousand with a median of 275. Nearly 98% of the companies had ten or more employees. Approximately 40% of the companies had 200 or fewer employees, 26% had between 201 and 500 employees; and 34% had more than 500 employees.

Emphasis on educational credentials

Employers were asked: WHAT EMPHASIS IS PLACED ON EDUCATIONAL CREDENTIALS IN YOUR COMPANY'S EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES?

More than 90% of those employers responding place either a major or moderate emphasis on educational credentials. These represent more than 95% of the people employed by these companies. As indicated in Table 2, this finding was consistent across companies of various sizes. Although approximately 42% of the companies with more than 500 employees compared to 35% of the companies with between 201-500 employees place a MAJOR emphasis on educational credentials, the relationship between size of company and emphasis on credentials was not statistically significant. Those employers who responded "NONE" (2%) were instructed not to respond to the items about documentation, opportunities, etc. described below.

Table 2

Emphasis on Educational Credentials by Size of Company

Emphasis	Percent of Companies (LT 201)	Percent of Companies (201-500)	Percent of Companies (501+)	Percent of ALL Employees
Major	37%	35%	42%	39%
Moderate	54%	53%	50%	56%
Minor	6%	9%	8%	4%
None	3%	2%	0%	1%

Employers were asked to indicate WHAT PERCENT OF THE PEOPLE EMPLOYED BY YOUR COMPANY ARE IN JOBS THAT REQUIRE:

- - less than a high school diploma. Overall, about 18% of the people were employed in positions that required less than a high school diploma. Twenty-three percent of the companies responding indicated that they had no persons in jobs that require less than a high school diploma. About one half of the companies responding had fewer than 8% of their employees in jobs requiring less than a high school diploma. Approximately 15% of the companies had a majority (50% or more) of their employees in such jobs.

- - a high school diploma or equivalency credential. Overall, about 38% of the people were employed in positions that required a high school diploma or equivalency credential. About one half of the companies responding had 40% or fewer persons employed in jobs that require a high school diploma or equivalency credential. Approximately 37% of the companies had a majority of their employees in such jobs.

- - certification or degree beyond high school. Overall, about 16% of the people were employed in positions that required certification beyond the high school level. Six percent of the companies indicated that they had no persons employed in jobs that required such certification. Half the companies had less than 11% of their employees in this category. Approximately three percent of the companies had a majority of their employees in such jobs.

- - a degree from a college or university. Overall, about 28% of the people were employed in positions that required a college degree. About 1% of the companies indicated that they had no employees in jobs that require a college degree. Approximately 15% did report that the majority of their employees had jobs that required such a degree.

Documentation of credentials

Approximately 25% of the employers who responded to this item request a copy of a job applicant's educational credential (i.e., copy of actual diploma). Nearly 40% request copy a of the educational transcript (e.g., courses/ grades obtained). There were no statistically significant relationships between company size and credential documentation practices. An additional ten percent of the employers indicated that they verify the awarding of credentials for positions requiring a college degree by phoning the institution directly rather than by requesting copies of transcripts or diplomas.

Opportunities

More than 96% of the companies give persons holding traditional high school diplomas and persons holding equivalency credentials the same starting salary. Nearly 97% provide the same initial level of employment to these persons. Approximately 98% of the companies provide the same opportunity for advancement to persons holding traditional high school diplomas and persons holding equivalency credentials. Nearly 50% of those responding indicated that for persons hired with less than a high school diploma, obtaining an equivalency credential would enhance opportunities for promotion.

Company educational programs

Approximately 57% of all companies have a tuition reimbursement program in effect to encourage persons with less than high school completion to earn their diploma. About 9% offer released time to employees; 17% provide on-site training for this purpose. There was a slight tendency for larger companies to be more likely than smaller companies to offer on-site courses and tuition reimbursement.

Skills/Attitudes

Depending on the occupation, a variety of skills and attitudes may be essential to successful job performance. Employers were asked to rate the importance of specific skills and/or attitudes for MOST PERSONS EMPLOYED AT THEIR COMPANY IN JOBS THAT NORMALLY REQUIRE NOT MORE THAN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENCY CREDENTIAL. The following rating scale was used (V= Very Important; I= Important; N= Not Important). The percentages are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Importance of Various Skills/Attitudes
By Percent of Company Responding

	Percent of companies responding...		
SKILL/ATTITUDE	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IMPORTANT
Completing job assignment	80%	19%	1%
Following spoken instructions	77	21	1
Getting along with people	70	26	3
Reading and Understanding Info.	59	37	3
Following written instructions	53	41	6
Accurately relay messages	46	40	14
Fluency in English	39	53	8
Using basic arithmetic	36	56	8
Keeping records and books	25	56	19
Solving problems	24	59	17
Using office equipment	23	54	23
Typing	17	51	31
Using shop tools	17	37	46
Composing letters, reports	14	44	42
Using word processing equipment	10	35	55
Directing work of others	11	30	60
Fluency in non-English language	1	5	94

Information from Part II of the survey may be useful in future curriculum and test development activities of educational organizations working with adults who have not completed high school.

CONCLUSIONS

Preliminary analyses indicate that employers place considerable emphasis on educational credentials, and that adults holding high school equivalency credentials are afforded the same opportunities by employers as adults with traditional high school diplomas. Getting along with people, the ability to read and understand information, following spoken and written instructions were considered either "very important" or "important" by nearly all employers for most people employed in jobs that normally require not more than a high school diploma or equivalency credential. One out of every four companies do not have jobs for adults with less than a high school diploma or equivalency credential. Further, almost half of the companies responding indicated that for persons hired with less than a high school diploma, obtaining an equivalency credential would enhance opportunities for promotion. It is important that adults be aware of these practices, especially because 44% of the adults currently employed were in positions that require training beyond the secondary level.

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Note

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ADULT HIGH SCHOOL NON-COMPLETERS: TOWARD A TYPOLOGY OF PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Larry G. Martin[1]

Abstract

This study challenged the assumption that all adults who did not complete high school (AHSN-Cs) are representative of the same monolithic construct. The fifteen-month qualitative study entailed conducting 79 two- to three-hour, biographical interviews with a diverse group of subjects. Several, underlying themes appeared to influence the adult development of the subjects: Deviance, Self-Esteem, Setting and Achieving Goals, and Literacy and Social Awareness. The life experiences of the subjects suggested they can be categorized into four groups: Entrepreneurs, Regulars, Marginals, and Underclass.

The perception of indifference to subpopulations of ABE/GED students and potential students along criteria other than those derived from academic sources is clearly evident in the processes used to target such populations for educational services. The most salient built-in characteristics are those concerned with the diagnosed level of reading and academic deficiencies. The National Center for Education Statistics sets the pace by categorizing three groups of participants (NCES, 1981). These categories account for the treatment received by the students once they enter the program. Invariably each student is subjected to the same routine. After completing the "in-processing" they are tested to diagnose a suitable academic placement and if the center has sufficient resources in the form of space, staff, and materials, they are provided three learning options: pursue learning through individualized efforts by studying a programmed text; attend a class lecture with minimum group interaction; or, attend a learning center and experience numerous mechanized learning devices.

The flexible structure of the learning environments to which adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs) are exposed assumes that all such adults are able to pursue learning in an independent manner. This assumption suggests that the experiences encountered while developing into adults were positive and resulted in an ability of each learner to primarily plan and implement their own learning projects.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

By exploring the adult developmental patterns experienced by American born AHSN-Cs, this study challenged the assumption that all AHSN-Cs are representative of the same monolithic construct and therefore should be subjected to identical programming efforts. The study took fifteen months to complete and entailed conducting 79 two- to three-hour, tape-recorded, biographical interviews with a diverse group of subjects. The research format followed the methodology suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The data were collected from persons living in three U.S. locations: a large Mid-western metropolis of over six million people; a mid-sized Southeastern city of 160,000 people, and several rural Southeastern communities of less than 5,000 persons. The interviewees were recruited from many diverse settings including ABE/GED programs, social service agencies, employment settings, street corners, and homes. Each interviewee was asked to address a series of questions designed to obtain information on their life experiences regarding their: childhood, schooling, adolescence, young adulthood, family background, current family, employment history, life crises, and others. The interviewee was encouraged to discuss in-depth any experience(s) considered important to their personal development.

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[1] Larry G. Martin, Assistant Professor, Administrative Leadership, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, P. O. Box 413, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201.

The Sample

The sample represents a diverse group of people whose only shared characteristics are that they were born in America and did not complete high school. Of those interviewed, 33 percent were white, 65 percent were black, and two percent were hispanic. The majority (57%) were women compared to (43%) men. A total of 73 percent were currently enrolled in ABE/GED programs, while 27 percent were not attending a program. The majority of them (42%) lived in a large city, 34% lived in a mid-sized city, and 24% lived in a rural community. Their ages ranged from 17 to 72 with an average age of 33.

EMERGING THEMES: OUTLINES OF A TYPOLOGY

The data collected in this study produced a mass of biographical information regarding how adults who did not complete high school perceive their individual adult developmental patterns. This mass of information has been ingested by the author through: interactions with the subjects while conducting personal interviews; observing subjects in learning, community, and home environments; listening to tape-recorded interviews; and decoding information from the interviews for systematic analysis. The analysis of data suggested several emerging themes that appeared to have major influences on the adult developmental patterns experienced by AHSN-Cs.

Emerging Themes

Although the sample of AHSN-Cs in this study represented vastly different backgrounds, experienced a range of problems and opportunities, and succeeded and failed to varying degrees, there were several underlying themes in the literature that suggested a commonality among them. These themes tended to center around several multidisciplinary concerns: deviancy, self-esteem, setting and achieving goals, and literacy and social awareness.

Deviance. In its simplest view deviance is defined statistically as any behavior that varies too far from a socially accepted norm. A much more common view identifies it as something essentially pathological, revealing the presence of a "disease." Sociologists view as deviant those processes in society that tend to reduce its stability, thus lessening its chance of survival. They label such processes deviant and identify them as symptoms of social disorganization (H. Becker, 1973). Schur (1979) suggests that a primary requisite to acquiring deviantness is that one's behavior or condition will have been viewed and treated in certain deviantizing ways. In this way, all the deviantness is "caused by" or "produced through" the process of definition and reaction, i.e., enforcing rules.

Self-Esteem. The problem of self-esteem is an organismic one that is intricately related to the make-up of the human being. "All our meanings are built into us from the outside, from our dealings with others. This is what gives us a "self" and a superego. Our whole world of right and wrong, good and bad, our name, precisely who we are, is grafted into us" (E. Becker, p. 48, 1973). Arguing that self-esteem takes root in the elemental physical experience of the infant, Becker (1973) suggests three basic ways human beings acquire self-esteem: (1) from the power of the other—from the mother when she is a dependable support and does not interfere too much with the child's own activity and from a strong father with whom the child can identify; (2) from the secure possession of one's own body as a safe locus under one's control; and (3) the cultural, causa sui project—society's symbols and dramatizations of our transcendence of animal vulnerability.

Setting and Achieving Goals. A goal is an expressed desire on the part of an individual and varies from those that are immediate to those that are long-term. Markel, et al., (1977) identified several aspects of goal-setting that are usually performed in a taken-for-granted way by high achievers, but were essentially unknown to low-achievers:

(a) competition with a standard of excellence; (b) concreteness; (c) moderate difficulty; (d) internally established; (e) time limit; (f) both immediate and long-range. After setting goals, high-achievers follow several steps to achieve them: planning steps, overcoming external blocks, finding helpful people, and anticipating future rewards (pp. 13-19).

Literacy and Social Awareness. Adults differ in their attainment of literacy skills and in their ability to critically analyze their social environment. Kreitlow (1970) suggests "Adult learning generally involves cognitive restructuring or reorganization... Adults show consistent differences in their capacity to direct attention selectively when confronted with complex stimulus fields" (p. 2). Different levels of literacy affect the ability of adults to think analytically, to study, and to analyze themselves. Ong (1982) asserts that abstractly sequential, classificatory, explanatory examination of phenomena or of stated truths is impossible without writing and reading. Illiterates learn by apprenticeship, listening, repeating what they hear, assimilating other formulatory materials, and participating in a kind of corporate retrospection.

The Typology

The data suggest that the life experiences of AHSN-Cs can be classified into four mutually exclusive, yet fluid, groups categorized in accordance with the manner in which they were able to cope successfully with the aforementioned underlying themes. These groups are the: Entrepreneurs, Regulars, Marginals, and Under Class.

The Entrepreneurs. This group epitomizes an AHSN-C combined version of Gail Sheehy's (1974) wunderkind and super-achiever adult development patterns. As owners of private businesses and as high-salaried employees, these individuals were the most financially successful of the persons interviewed, satisfied with the development of their life patterns, and optimistic about their futures. The concept of deviance was not a central concern to their day-to-day activities, but tended to be situational in nature; especially when they considered employment options or in the presence of highly educated persons. They tended to successfully avoid being labeled deviant by the larger society, did not associate with deviant groups, and were fully committed to the values of society.

The entrepreneurs tended to possess the highest levels of self-esteem: referring often to their many successes in life, exhibiting a firm control of the language, and appearing satisfied with their material possessions. They often exhibited a good sense of the direction they wanted their lives to take and how they would pursue their goals. Indicating that literacy and learning was a central aspect of their lives, they often described themselves as voracious readers, and relied on their literacy skills to decipher and to understand their environment.

The Regulars. This group is representative of the social group characterized by Elijah Anderson (1978). They tended to be regularly employed blue-collar workers and often enjoyed consistent employment at good wages. They are characterized by their commitment to the social structure of the larger society, although they must occasionally weather bouts with periodic unemployment. To a large extent they avoid being successfully labeled as deviant, but occasionally interact with those individuals who have been successfully deviantized by the larger society. They have a moderately strong sense of self-esteem that tends to be centered primarily upon their ability to earn a wage.

For the regulars, goal-setting and attainment is not a clearly articulated process. Goals are often the subject of their thought and actions but tend to lack several of the elements noted among high achievers, and their goal achievement efforts are largely sporadic and inconsistent. Their literacy skills tend to be sufficient to allow them to function, but not enough to allow them to experience growth to its fullest potential.

The Marginals. This group, epitomized by the welfare parent, lives on the fringes of the mainstream social system. Because they are often unemployed, they are characterized by their low social-economic status, yet, they are sincere about their futile attempts to become employed and are committed to the values of the larger social system. Their struggle for basic survival needs necessitate that their commitment to mainstream social values be weighted by the extent to which they can see real and immediate personal benefit.

The marginals often associate with and are frequently labeled as being social deviants. Their association with deviant groups, e.g., criminals, committed welfare recipients, drug addicts, etc., provide for them a different perspective of social reality and leaves them in a state of ambivalence in terms of their societal commitment. They have no firm basis from which to either generate or to maintain a sense of self-esteem in the mainstream society and consequently builds it from occasional acts of deviance. They seldom express a strong commitment to the achievement of personal goals and are often frustrated when failure results from their unplanned attempts to achieve unarticulated goals. They have low levels of literacy skills and correspondingly low levels of understanding and awareness of themselves, their lives, and their social environment.

The Under Class. This group is characteristic of the social class described by Wilson (1980) as being in "A hopeless state of economic stagnation falling further and further behind the rest of society" (p. 2). They have completely rejected the societal causa sui project and developed a commitment to an alternative system of beliefs and values that often contradict and counteract those of the larger society. Members of the under class may seek support from the larger society, but work actively to sustain themselves through deviant and often illegal means. They are committed to an invisible means of support and earn their self-esteem by getting away with more and more profitable robberies, taking more and better drugs, acquiring fatter welfare checks, and having a larger family of welfare-related childbirths.

The goal-setting and achievement orientated behaviors of members of the under class range from the low's experienced by the "marginals" to the effective methods utilized by the "entrepreneurs": the primary difference being the societal focus of the goal-directed activity. Their literacy skills are often flawed, but can be quite comprehensive for some individuals. Most of them have a blurred view of their social environment, but a select few have an operational view of their social reality that allows them to function effectively and pursue their alternative causa sui projects.

IMPLICATIONS

The aforementioned typology has implications for practitioners interested in understanding the focus of current ABE/GED programs and altering them to serve the learning needs of a broader cross-section of the client population. The focus of the programs on independent learning methodologies,and techniques and devices utilizing print tend to produce a favorable learning environment for the entrepreneurs and regulars. Being more or less fully committed to the values of the dominant social structure and having the ability to avoid deviantizing labels these individuals experience fewer problems with deviance. They often possess moderate to high levels of self-esteem, frequently employ their literacy skills as a means to resolve life problems, and rely on goal-setting and achievement processes to accomplish their desires. Therefore, these individuals tend to be the most likely of the targeted client population to enroll in and to complete ABE/GED programs.

The marginals and members of the underclass often experience multiple problems with the entire range of the aforementioned trends that mitigate against their enrolling in or completing educational programs. Their inability to thwart deviantizing labels and their lack of commitment to the social structure produce in them intrapsychic reactions which constrict their efforts to engage in constructive interpersonal relationships with authoritative figures of the dominant social structure, and equally constricts their efforts to learn from these individuals. Their low levels of self-esteem and meager literacy skills often condense their perspective of social reality and interferes with their ability to pursue learning through print. Many individuals in these groups are primarily oral and find learning through individualized instruction and print to be the antithesis of their learning styles.

To alter the programs to provide a more favorable learning environment for both the marginals and members of the underclass, the focus of the programs must be directed to helping them to become recommitted and, in some cases committed, to the values of the dominant social structure. Simultaneously, the programs should focus on their other interrelated problems which will require that a system be established to distinguish between those learners who are either mentally or physically learning disabled from those who are not and design suitable programs to help them; to both understand and to cope with the stigma of being a social deviant; to increase their levels of self-esteem by viewing themselves as valuable members of society; to identify and achieve their personal goals; and to broaden their perspectives of social reality. To accomplish these goals will require bridges within the ABE/GED programs to accommodate the required shifts in their value structures. Such bridges can probably be accomplished most efficiently and effectively through the use of small groups, similar in structure to the culture circles utilized by Paulo Freire, but whose function is most similar to those of Alcoholic's Anonymous and other self-help groups which utilize the collective strength of the group to help individual members to overcome adverse conditions.

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LOCUS OF CONTROL AND COURSE COMPLETION OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION LITERACY PROGRAM PARTICIPANTS

Maurice C. Taylor[1]

Abstract

The relationship between locus of control and course completion in an adult basic education program was investigated. Instruction was individualized; each learner was tutored by an adult volunteer. Learners were referred by social service agencies or were encouraged to participate by friends and family or through radio and television advertisements. Early in their program 62 adult learners responded to an 11-item modification of the Rotter I-E Scale. As hypothesized, adult learners who completed the literacy program were significantly more internally controlled than those learners who did not complete the program. In addition, the dropout group included a much higher proportion of learners referred by social service agencies.

In adult basic education (ABE), many learners drop out of programs designed to improve their reading and writing skills. Kent (1973) described a dropout rate of approximately 60% during a six-month period. Without successful completion in a literacy program, opportunities for further skills development are limited. Since completion of programs would seem to depend on personal commitment, it is likely that locus of control is related to course completion. Rotter (1966) states that people vary in the degree to which they recognize a contingent relationship between their own behaviors (actions) and the resulting reinforcements (outcomes). Certain people (externals) generally believe that reinforcements are controlled by forces external to themselves such as fate, chance, luck, powerful others. Others (internals) tend to believe that their own behaviors are the primary factors in receipt of reinforcements; that is, control rests within the power of the individual. Rotter (1966) further states that belief in locus of control is attributable to the history of reinforcement patterns experienced by an individual.

Newsom and Foxworth (1980) hypothesized that a greater percentage of internal than external subjects would complete a goal. They investigated this relationship among students in ABE classes. Subjects were enrolled in a federally sponsored retraining program and received training allowances to attend school. In contrast to the hypothesis, the proportion of internals and externals completing the course did not differ significantly. Since receipt of training allowances was conditional on attendance at school, one might speculate that this masked any relationship between completion and locus of control. Tseng (1970) hypothesized that locus of control would correlate with job proficiency, employability and training satisfaction of clients in a vocational centre. He found that in comparison to externals, internals showed significantly higher instructor ratings on job proficiency and personal quality, higher self-ratings on training satisfaction and higher need for achievement. In examining the relationship of locus of control and work relevant variables, Valecha (1972) found that white internals were in higher level occupations, made better progress on the job, had more stable work histories, worked more hours per week and had higher incomes than white externals. No such relationships were found for black subjects.

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[1] Maurice C. Taylor, Ph.D. Candidate, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, The University of Toronto, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, M5S 1V6

The above studies have provided some evidence of the relationship between locus of control and variables associated with job success. Support was not shown for a relationship between locus of control and course completion. It is possible that in the Newsom and Foxworth study, the completion rate was more a function of outside influences such as monetary allowances for attendance at school. It seems reasonable to expect a relationship between locus of control and course completion. Those individuals who are inclined to associate the receipt of reinforcements as being dependent on their own actions and behaviors should more readily complete a course. Therefore it was hypothesized that adult learners who complete a literacy program are more internally controlled than those adult learners who do not complete it.

METHOD

Subjects

A total of 62 adults (29 female and 33 male) enrolled in an ABE literacy program in Eastern Ontario comprised the research subjects. This was the total group admitted between September and January. All subjects volunteered to take the literacy training; they were not eligible for a federal training allowance and could not afford the community college tuition fee. Learners were referred to a one-to-one tutorial program through a well established network of social service agencies, word of mouth, and radio and television advertisements. Tutors were also volunteers. Subjects were assigned to reading and writing skill levels: beginner (decoding words), intermediate (reading to learn) and mature (refinement of skills). Ages ranged from 18 to 56. Language of instruction was English. Learners met with their tutors for a weekly three-hour session. In many instances learning sessions took place twice a week.

Measuring Instruments

A modification of Valecha's abbreviated 11-item Rotter I-E Scale was used to measure locus of control. These items were chosen based on their adult-oriented and work-related content. In contrast to Valecha's scale, the original forced choice format of Rotter's I-E Scale was used. The range of scores was from 10 to 20, with the larger scores indicating an external orientation. One filler item was included in the scale. A biographical profile was developed for each subject which included type of referral, reading level, age and progress through the course.

Procedure

The modified scale was administered to an adult learner by his or her tutor during the first two weeks of the literacy program. Data from six subjects were not obtained. Since many subjects could not read, the scale was presented orally to the learner by his or her tutor. The adult learner then indicated which of the alternatives best described his or her feelings. The tutors were trained to administer the modified I-E Scale. Programs for adult learners began on three separate occasions: October, December and January. Because of time constraints for data collection, completion of the program was defined as active participation in the program for a period of three months. It was argued that students who completed three months had shown themselves to be personally committed.

RESULTS

Data were analyzed with two independent variables: completion (yes, no) and reading level (beginner, intermediate and mature). The means and standard deviations for locus of control scores are presented in Table 1. As can be seen, those who completed were more internal than those who did not complete. While there was a tendency for beginner readers to be more external than intermediate and mature readers, these differences were not large. Data were analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance (unweighted means) with locus of control scores as the dependent variable.

As hypothesized, adult learners who completed the literacy program were significantly more internal than those who did not complete the program, F (1,50) = 17.03. It had been expected that those learners who were better readers would be more internally controlled. Although in the hypothesized direction these differences were not significant, F (2,50) = 0.29. No interaction was found between the two independent variables, F (2,50) = 0.78.

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Locus of Control
by Reading Level and Completion Rate

	Completion					
	Yes			No		
Reading Level	N	M	S.D.	N	M	S.D.
Beginner	14	3.21	1.12	4	6.00	.82
Intermediate	21	3.05	1.56	9	5.11	1.45
Mature	5	3.20	1.92	3	4.33	1.53
Total	40	3.16		16	5.15	

DISCUSSION

Adult learners who completed the program tended to be more internal in their belief of control of reinforcements. Internally controlled individuals are described as likely to believe in their own potential to change their world. Generally speaking, in this study, learners who completed the program were able to overcome problems of transportation, weather, conflicting work schedules and the frustrations of the academic learning. Externally controlled individuals generally believe their destinies and outcomes are controlled by forces extrinsic to themselves, such as fate, chance, luck or powerful others. Therefore it is not surprising that those individuals who did not complete tended to be more external.

The 40 learners who completed the program were referred by the following methods: social service agency (15), advertisement (13) and family member or friend (12). Of the 16 learners who did not complete the program, 12 were referred by a social service agency and four learned of the program through advertisements. This greater proportion of unsuccessful agency referrals is certainly consistent with what is known of locus of control. The fact that those who do complete tend to be more internal and participate because of their own decision is consistent with the theory.

If it can be further demonstrated that dropouts in ABE programs, such as basic training for skill development and college preparation, have an external orientation, then counselling techniques specific to the adult learner can be designed to increase their feelings of self-efficacy. Shifting adult learners to more internal orientations in a group setting through locus of control change techniques could be conducted as part of the ABE (course content) program. During the program orientation, adult learners with external orientations could be identified and streamed into small groups to be instructed in skills that would help in changing external behaviors and attitudes towards internality.

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A COMPARISON OF THE THEORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF LIBERAL ADULT EDUCATION WITH THE THEORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF RADICAL ADULT EDUCATOR PAULO FREIRE

Carolyn M. Pillow[1]

Abstract

This paper examines the theoretical and philosophical approaches of Liberal Adult Education through a review of selected literature and the Radical Adult Education of Paulo Freire, a contemporary Brazilian educator concerned primarily with illiteracy, through a review of his writings as well as those of his critics. The focus is on four areas of the educational process: (1) the teaching/learning process, (2) the nature of content, (3) the role of the adult educator, and (4) the role of the learner.

Two philosophical approaches to adult education that on the surface appear at opposite ends of a continuum are Liberal Adult Education and the radical philosophy of Paulo Freire. The educational theory of Liberal Education dates back to the early Greek scholars, Aristotle and Socrates. Its emphasis is on the persuit of knowledge through the study of the disciplines (mathematics, physics, human sciences, history, religion, literature and the fine arts, philosophy, morals) and through the study of the various theoretical and practical fields of knowledge, i.e. geography, engineering, political, legal, and educational theory (Hirst, 1972).

Paulo Freire, a contemporary Brazilian adult educator concerned primarily with illiteracy, has developed a philosophy and theory of education that is directly linked to political action and social change. The aim of his pedagogy - revolution - is realized through a process called conscientization during which oppressed people, in learning to think critically, become conscious of the reality that is creating their oppression. It is then through praxis, the union of reflection and action, that social change occurs.

Although the ultimate aim of education is vastly different between the Liberal Adult Educators and those esposing Freire's radical philosophy, the distinction does not often carry over into the areas of the educational process. This paper will consider the two philosophical and theoretical approaches to adult education by examining the following four areas: the nature of the teaching/learning process, the nature of content, the role of the teacher, and the role of the learner.

THE NATURE OF THE TEACHING/LEARNING PROCESS

The primary method through which teaching and learning occurs for the Liberal Adult Education theorists is through discussion aimed at enabling the learner to come to an understanding of the external world and their own private states of mind (Hirst, 1972). It is the persuit of knowledge itself that gives self-mastery. Everett Martin (1926) emphasizes that both the content and process of education are concerned with insight, valuing, and understanding, the development of the power of discrimination, and the ability to make choices among possibilities of experience. Liberal Adult Education is concerned with how people think not just with what they think. An educated person is defined as not only one who can do something ut also as one who knows the significance of what he does and cannot and will not do certain things (Martin, 1926).

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[1] Carolyn M. Pillow, Doctoral Student, Adult Learning/Continuing Education, Virginia Polytechnic & State University, Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

Paulo Freire, too, is concerned with the way in which men think. One of his key concepts, conscientization, occurs when the learner, after passing through three levels of consciousness, arrives at the highest degree of critical thinking. The method used to educate the learners to this state is dialogue. For dialogue to be a mark of a relationship between the learner and true knowledge it must approach reality actively (Freire, 1970). Both the teacher and the students are engaged in a critical examination of the world of the oppressed and of the oppressors.

The teaching and learning processes of Freire and of Liberal Adult Education are based on helping the learner to develop a greater awareness of reality. Liberal Adult Education sets out to vitalize and transform man's consciousness - to extend and intensify his powers of perception, thought, and feeling. To grow in awareness of reality is to enter into closer touch with reality and to discover its objective properties, structures, and meanings (Paterson, 1979).

In education, which is the cultural action for freedom, knowledge is viewed by Freire as a shared process of inquiry and, as such, it cannot exist in an atmosphere of domination (Freire, 1968). Mortimer Adler (1940), a prominent Liberal Adult Educator, contends that by discussing reading people can learn to talk more intelligently and intelligibly to one another about all problems which engage man's thought and action. K. Lawson (1975) feels that student-centered teaching or discussions are more than a technique because they produce more open-ended responses rather than the reproduction of 'correct' answers and represent a view of the nature of education in which educational values are inherent.

To increase the learner's awareness of the world around him the use of problem-solving is advocated by both approaches. Lawson (1975) cites criticism, analyses of performance, and problem-solving as important methods in the teaching/learning process. Freire's 'problem-posing' education, based on the theory that critical thinking generates critical thinking, engages the learners in the constant problematizing of their existential situations. By 'codifying' words that are familiar and meaningful to the learners into graphic representations of situations also familiar and meaningful to learners, learners are guided into discussions of their perceptions of culture and the ways in which they can change it (Freire, 1983).

The major distinction in the teaching/learning process between Freire's pedagogy and Liberal Adult Education can be seen in Freire's definition of the nature of synthesis in the dialogical process where new knowledge is generated. This is in contrast to the Liberal Adult Education theorists who perceive the necessity of the learner linking his newly acquired knowledge to a larger body of already existing knowledge. Freire's learner creates new knowledge by critically analyzing old knowledge.

THE NATURE OF CONTENT

In both educational theories the relevancy of content to the experience of the learner is stressed. In Freire's pedagogy program content is a continual reflection upon experience and upon the growing knowledge of the local and, later, the larger society (Lloyd, 1972). Similarly, the content of Liberal Adult Education must be relevant to the human condition and must connect the learner to reality by providing him with a piece of knowledge that is part of a wider body of knowledge (Lawson, 1975, Paterson, 1979).

There is a relationship between knowledge acquired in the specific learning situation and knowledge inherent in a larger context. The broader the special subject a man is engaged in studying, the more his studies are regarded by Liberal Adult Educators as partaking of the nature of the educational process (Paterson, 1979). The more they link meaningfully up with other dimensions of experience, the more they result in widening the student's mental horizons (Paterson, 1979, Hutchins, 1948, Martin, 1926). Robert Hutchins (1968) suggests an effective method is to present the familiar and then move toward an understanding of the principles and propositions of the various forms of knowledge.

In literacy education Paulo Freire (1983) is not only concerned with decoding the written word but rather with extending the learner's knowledge of the world. Program content is the organized, systematized, and developed 'representation' of the things about which the learner wants to know more (Freire, 1968). Materials drawn fomm the experience of the learner help move the learner from the simple to the complex (Lloyd, 1972). Knowledge is viewed not as a fact but as a process.

Liberal Adult Education identifies education not as the means to some end but as the end. Content must be intrinsically worthwhile. It is only educational to the extent that it is used to develop the learner as a person (Lawson, 1975, Paterson, 1979). Therefore, content in both approaches becomes part of the teaching/learning process and the teaching/learning process becomes the subject-matter of education.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The Liberal Adult Educator begins with an existing body of knowledge - a subject or a piece of literature. The teacher using Freire's methodology first must go out among the people to search out 'generative' or cultural themes and words which become the starting point for the content of the educational process. Both processes require the teacher to assume the role of a facilitator. Freire's teacher guides the learners into discussions of the codifications in a manner that will stimulate reflection on the culture oppressing them, thereby, encouraging critical thinking. Part of the skill of a teacher in Liberal Adult Education is the identification of what people do not know and the ability to guide them into new areas which are worthwhile. The teacher is responsible for initiating the learner into new fields of activity, for the critical evaluation of those activities, and for the exploration of new ways of looking at things in order to enable the learner to move forward to new values (Lawson, 1975).

The Liberal Adult Educator as a technician is responsible for 'engineering' situations in which exercises, problem-solving, explanations, analyses of performance, and criticism are included (Lawson, 1975). Horace Kallen (1962) maintains that the task of the educator is to employ techniques of enabling, facilitating, and creating in an ongoing process of self-differentiation. Learning situations are to be conceived in terms of what is to be learned, of the strategy for the active involvement of the learner, and of the learning objectives.

According to Paulo Freire (1968) the teacher has the task of 're-presenting' the universe to the people from whom he first received it as a problem not as a lecture. He identifies problem-posing education as the tool by which the learner can begin to move to a higher consciousness.

In addition to the roles of initiator, facilitator, and technician, each theory of education proposes that the teacher acts as a collaborator in the learning situation. Martin (1926) believes that the teacher, as the "seeker of truth amongst his students", is a student first and only incidentally a teacher. Because, in Freire's pedagogy, the teacher not only does not possess the knowledge, he knows that he does not in a complete and total way, teaching is a collaborative effort between teacher and students (Freire, 1972).

If education is a collaborative effort, the educator is expected to adhere to the same philosophy on which the educational activity is based. Because teachers must possess the same aim, revolution, as their students, Freire (1972) asserts that they must study methods and teaching as instruments for and in accordance with a certain applied theory of knowledge which ought to be faithful to a certain political commitment. Kallen (1962), in describing the role of the Liberal Adult Educator, maintains that the educator needs to commit himself to an orchestration of his own attitudes and goals with those of his pupils.

THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER

A primary assumption for Paulo Freire and for the Liberal Adult Educators is that man is in a constant state of becoming. Differences in the philosophical assumptions and the educational expectations of the learner occur in the emphasis placed by Liberal Adult Education on the learner and the emphasis placed by Freire on social change. The former is seen in the attribution of the ultimate responsibility for learning and growth to the learner himself. The latter appears in one of Freire's major assumptions which centers in the learner's capacity to bring about revolution through praxis, the union of reflection and action, attained in the educational experience.

The learner in Liberal Adult Education is expected to engage in learning actively, intelligently, and critically (Adler, 1940). Because adults are presumed to possess a certain degree of maturity, it is assumed that: first, their participation will be voluntary; second, their participation will be based on their desire to obtain knowledge and understanding for its own sake; third, they will be able to connect each specific learning situation to their overall educational process; fourth, they will involve themselves in an interpersonal encounter with other learners with some measure of openness and sensitivity; and, finally, they will participate actively in the learning process by sharing in the determination of learning objectives (Paterson, 1975).

Similarities to Liberal Adult Education in the expectations placed on the learner by Freire occur in several areas. Because dialogue cannot exist in an atmosphere of domination, the learner's participation is voluntary (Freire, 1968). He is expected to engage actively in the task of unveiling reality and coming to know it critically. Freire's students-teachers and teacher-student are critical co-investigators who, by getting to know and to recognize cultural reality together, can teach and learn (Freire, 1972). As the Liberal Adult Education student shares in developing his learning experience, so does the oppressed citizen in Freire's literacy program. He is expected to reveal those prominent cultural themes in his life upon which the content for learning will emerge. Freire's learner is also expected to connect the specific knowledge gained in an educational activity to a larger context - to an awareness of the culture surrounding him. However, as Liberal Adult Education requires the learner to connect specific knowledge to social change.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

There are many similarities between Liberal Adult Education and the radical adult education of Paulo Freire in the teaching/learning process, the educational content, the role of the teacher, and the role of the learner. The primary distinction lies in the purpose of education as conceived in each approach. Freire aims toward revolution in which a society of oppressors and oppressed becomes humanistic with the annihilation of oppression. The Liberal Adult Education theorists conceive of education as an ongoing process engaged in by individuals consciously choosing to continue to develop their awareness of the world around them and within them. Its aim is to enhance the development of the person. As a result of people becoming better human beings a better society will be created. As a result of Freire's educational process directed toward changing society the individual will become "more fully human" (Freire, 1968).

Because there is frequently a great deal of conflict among professional adult educators and among adult education practioners in diverse settings over the ultimate goals of the field, philosophical and theoretical positions have often been rejected or, worse, ignored because of their proposed purposes. Differences are easy to spot. However, as a somewhat fragmented field, adult education needs to be sensitized to concepts, theories, and philosophies that incorporate similarities. This is especially important in developing our philosophical base. Philosophy directs and nourishes both the educator and the educational process. A clear understanding of our values concerning man and his ability to learn as well as the educational process can make us better practioners.

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POLICY EVALUATION: NEW AREAS OF RESEARCH FOR ADULT EDUCATION

William M. Rivera[1]
Sue Miles

Abstract

This paper remarks the increasing demand on professionals in Adult and Extension Education to undertake program evaluation of significance to policy decision-makers; and the inevitable connections among program, policy and politics are underscored with a view to pointing up new areas of research suggested by a review of evaluation from the policy angle. Following a brief overview of the development of evaluation within the field, a framework of policy components developed by Fischer is analyzed for its value in distinguishing differing approaches to the study of policy evaluation: for technical verification of program objectives, validation of policy goals, and vindication of political choice.

With the above delineation of policy components, three approaches to the study of policy evaluation are described: 1) policy evaluation as the study of goal implementation and goal attainment, 2) policy evaluation as the study of goal acceptability by relevant political groups, and 3) policy evaluation as the study of goal maximization of policy options. These three approaches are then distinguished with respect to their emphasis on goals, and thus on problem-solving and decision-making. Contrasted to this general concentration on goals, the paper brings attention to equally important concerns with the study of the criteria that underlie evaluations, especially as they refer to the evaluation of assessment of goal realization.

Adult educators are being called upon more than ever to be accountable and demonstrate effectiveness. Program evaluation has become mandatory for formal as well as nonformal public activities aimed at educating adults. The recent, Congressionally mandated Accountability and Evaluation System within the State Cooperative Extension Services is only the most striking example.

Indeed, program evaluation is now, in principle, recognized as a comprehensive, ongoing activity--for use in planning, conducting and judging the effectiveness of programs. Numerous models and differing paradigms exist providing a variety of approaches to evaluation. Because of the current concern to demonstrate program credibility to State and Federal legislators and executives, university leaders and administrators, much stress has been placed on program impact: the assessment of final results.

Program impact studies represent a form of evaluation particularly significant for policy considerations. They are in fact, from one angle a form of policy evaluation, for it is from policy goals that program objectives and their attainment, or lack thereof, will be judged. Thus, while useful for improving an institution's program development, impact study may be used even more critically for the purposes of policy renewal or re-determination.

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(1) William Rivera, Associate Professor, Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742; Sue Miles, Cornell University, Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 20742.

Inevitable Connections

The connection between policy and program is inevitable since policy goals become translated into program objectives, and this connection is reflected in the act of evaluating—an act as useful for program, as for policy, changes.

As program is inevitably linked with policy, so policy is to the politics that brings policy into being. This three-way connection is what this paper, and policy evaluation, is about: the different conceptual frameworks within which research evaluation can be fitted. For policy evaluation is a many-faceted concept, one which means different things to different researchers. The different meanings and purposes of policy evaluation are of interest in and of themselves, but also for the new areas of research that they suggest for adult education.

Adult Education: From Program to Policy and Political Concerns

Adult education as a research discipline and even moreso as a field of practice tends to be heavily program related. While program evaluation has been a concern to the field at least since the 1950's (Wilder, 1959), it was only in the 1960's that it became a more immediate concern (Dressel, 1961; Miller, 1961; Shannon and Schoenfeld, 1965; and Thiede, 1964).

In Adult Education the evaluation process refers generally to goal attainment—the formulation of program objectives in specific and measurable terms, the structuring of learning experiences to achieve these objectives, the collection of evidence from various sources of the extent to which program objectives are being attained, and the evaluation of results with a view to program improvement.

As the study of program evaluation has advanced and become more complex, Adult Education as other educational and social disciplines has been pushed to respond to new ways of thinking about evaluation.

While program directors may be interested in evaluation for improvement and decision-making as well as for demonstrating program effectiveness, the policy leader is interested only or primarily in evaluation for its use in demonstrating policy effectiveness, since program effectiveness indicates that the policy goals have been attained. Nevertheless, different types of program evaluation may represent different types of policy evaluation. For example, social audits of programs represent a form of policy evaluation to assess goal implementation (Coleman, 1975) and program impact studies a form of policy evaluation of goal attainment.

The scope of policy evaluation is suggested by Fischer's "framework of policy components (1980, 206); this framework includes: 1)technical verification of program objectives, 2) validation of policy goals, and 3) vindication of political choice. These policy components point up the inter-connection among program, policy and politics, and from the angle of policy they clarify that policy research includes evaluation to verify a policy's program objectives, to validate a policy's goals, and to vindicate the political choice that brought about a policy. Fischer refers to this latter area of policy evaluation as "political evaluation." Thus, from Fischer it may be inferred that there are basically three main forms, or concerns, of policy evaluation—at least as it refers to policy goals.

Policy Evaluation as the Study of Goal Implementation and Goal Attainment

The study of goal implementation and goal attainment are lumped together here, for in line with Fischer's framework it makes sense to include them under one heading since they both refer to program. Goal implementation as a policy-evaluation approach may refer to policies involving resource allocation (Coleman, 1975, 39), as already mentioned. Coleman's concern is with examinations to trace the paths that resources take during policy implementation. According to Coleman, social audit design gives greater insight than "inputs versus outputs" design into what kind of modifications are needed for effective policies (ibid, 39). Such audit-type information may be compared with what Nachmias calls process evaluation (1979), or what Rose (1976, 13) refers to as "the routinization of feed back."

The creation of a program is the result of a political choice manifested in the form of a policy having certain goals. The program task is to transform goals into objectives and to implement activities which will efficiently and effectively meet these program objectives and thus satisfy the original policy goals. Accordingly, for leaders concerned with program effectiveness as an indication of policy success (or its ineffectiveness as a sign of failure), the study of impact is paramount. It is no surprise then that the Federal government should stress the study of Extension program impacts in its Cooperative Extension Accountability and Evaluation system. On the other hand, Cooperative Extension has been careful to examine the degree and extent of satisfaction among its clientele, ascertaining the general public commitment to the policy goals that have established and maintain its services. This brings up another form of policy evaluation, one which underlines the political dimension of public policy.

Policy Evaluation as the Study of Goal Acceptability

Policy evaluation as the study of goal acceptability examines the political actions that inform policy and specifically the criteria underlying such actions. Policies afterall are the "political agreement on courses of action--whether arrived at through political discussion, vote or decree" (Fischer, 1980, 184). To what extent then is a policy in its final form reflective of what its relevant political groups desired; what were the criteria held by these groups when they took action to implement the policy; is the final policy product acceptable to them? The questions raised by this form of evaluation, force further thinking about the difference and relationship between evaluation as a meta-activity, or quasi-philosophical inquiry, and between evaluation as a technical activity. This distinction will be returned to after consideration of the third type of goal-oriented policy evaluation discussed in this paper.

While it is not the intent of this paper to examine the context for a "political" evaluation, it may be helpful to mention Fischer's "categories of relevant political data" (ibid, 188-89) which include the study of: 1) political actors, 2) motivations and goals of actors, 3) beliefs and values of actors, 4) political resources (power and influence), 5) political decision rules and time, 6) political decision sites, 7) public opinion and political climate, and 8) relevant political culture. Some may protest that we are entering the realm of political science; indeed; but then hasn't Adult and Extension Education already developed foundations in anthropology (Tax, et al, 1968), sociology (Burns, 1970) and psychology (Kuhlen, 1970). Seeing the connections among program, policy and politics, it would appear that this field cannot continue to limit itself primarily to program concerns and a program-centered focus in evaluation.

Policy Evaluation as the Study of Goal Maximization

Another form of policy evaluation, quite different from either of the forms already cited, aims to improve the management of policy decisions through the determination of alternatives indicating the choices facing decisionmakers.

Policy evaluation, as defined by Stuart Nagel, combines two research orientations, that of policy studies with its link to political science and economics and that of program evaluation associated with sociology and psychology. Its general purpose is to help researchers help policymakers to decide on optimum public policies. In his book Policy evaluation: Making optimum decisions (1982), Nagel proposes a set of principles and applications to apply the optimizing methods of operations research, management science, and related disciplines to public policy problems. He classifies policy optimizing models according to whether they optimize a) the choice among alternative public policies, b) the level (increase/decrease) for a policy requiring modification, c) the mix (distribution) in allocating scarce resources, and d) the time for reaching policy goals.

Policy evaluation according to Nagel combines multiple concerns of both policy studies and evaluation research. Thus it seeks to combine a) the concerns of policy studies to evaluate policies before their adoption, taking their goals as givens to be maximized, with b) the concerns of evaluation research to evaluate policies after their adoption, taking policies and programs as givens whose effects are to be determined. Its specific purpose is to help arrive at governmental decisions that represent the best choice among discrete alternatives in light of various constraints and conditions, or the best level or mix along a continuum of alternative possibilities.

From Goals To Criteria

To this point discussion has focussed on one major approach to evaluation, which emphasizes goals and problem-solving and by extension a concern with decision-making. Another, very distinct approach is to focus on values and criteria used in evaluation research. So far the technical, problem-solving and decision-making, approach to evaluation stands out as a major concern in the field of Adult and Extension Education: nonetheless, attention is beginning to be drawn to the argument that social (including educational) policy has "less to do with problem solving than with the process of argument" (Anderson, 1979, 712). What, for example, are the values underlying the standards on which evaluations are made. Indeed, Klein (1982, 133) states that: "The process of argument about both values and standards, and the relationship between the two is of central importance because it delineates the special contribution of social policy as an academic activity."

The tension that operates in the field of Adult and Extension Education may be less that of reluctance to investigate policy and political matters that impinge on program activities, but rather one between valuing technical (problem-solving) activity above academic (argumentation) activity. By "argumentation" is meant the act or process of forming reasons, making inductions, drawing conclusions, and applying them, as well as the act and process of debate and discussion.

The field's concerns with evaluation for solving problems as compared with the importance of studying the criteria of evaluation suggests a tension that deserves increased attention for, as one author puts it: "Value neutrality is a state of intellectual life as rare as virginity in sexual life" (Barry & Rae, 1975). To deal with policy, researchers must consider politics and its value base and not only be concerned with program effectiveness. The intellectual challenge may be less with the assessment of goals--whether they are acceptable, maximized, or attained--but with the criteria underlying the goals themselves.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper suggests that the subject of evaluation in Adult and Extension Education is broader than program evaluation and encompasses the larger concept of policy evaluation (which includes those aspects of program evaluation aimed at demonstrating policy goal implementation and effectiveness through program activity).

Policy evaluation, as underlined in this paper, is seen as covering questions about the politics behind policy development, the maximization of policy choice, as well as the realization of policy goals. At the same time, the study of criteria underlying evaluations of goal attainment is highlighted as an equally important area of research. While the various forms of goal-oriented policy evaluation may provide new areas of research for Adult and Extension Education, the study of evaluation criteria may serve to develop in this field not only new areas but a new approach to evaluation—away from technical concerns with problem-solving and decision-making toward questions of values and standards that form the base for evaluation methods and techniques.

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ISSUES IN LEGISLATING BASIC EDUCATION FOR ADULTS: A NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Paul G. Taylor [1]

Abstract

For seventeen years the Adult Education Act (P.L. 91-230 as amended) has been funded as a categorical program for the provision of basic education for adults. As a Title in the omnibus Elementary and Secondary Education Act, it has been amended twelve times. Because the Act is due to expire next year, efforts are being made by adult educators, associations, and the National Advisory Council on Adult Education (NACAE) to affect the state grant programs authorized by this legislation. Information and data are being gathered from various audiences towards this end. This survey attempted to add to this information by identifying and describing some issues of concern about the legislating of basic education for adults.

While a major focus of federal attention has been on the education of children, a U.S. Commissioner of Education, Lawrence G. Derthick, 25 years ago recognized that adult literacy could not be excluded from government priorities for education. He said:

> As a nation, we are not yet sufficiently appreciative of the fact that better informed adults mean richer developmental experiences for children. Thus, providing public funds for adult education should be regarded, also, as an investment for the children. Our Nation certainly does not lack resources to make additional investments in education. Opportunities are needed for all those who can be upgraded as citizens and who can join the ranks of well-trained manpower. Indeed, in these times, we can afford to do not one bit less.

Whether as a result of the Commissioner's announced priority or a part of the federal emphasis on the creation of a Great Society, legislation and accompanying funds for the basic education of adults, on a meaningful scale, were forthcoming in 1964. In 1966 came the decision by Congress to transfer the adult basic education (ABE) state grant program from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the U.S. Office of Education. This was accomplished by repealing the Title II B of the Economic Opportunity Act, and by enacting the Adult Education Act of 1966 as Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments (P.L. 89-750). The ABE program is still the only federal program charged by the Congress specifically to provide literacy to adults.

An overriding issue, and at the heart of much of the criticism about the ABE programs is that we are dealing with a single piece of federal legislation which has been amended twelve times but never reformed in its entire history. Because of this, and the manner in which the form and content of the amendments were achieved, many of the substantive issues and criticisms that have surfaced in the literature since 1965 have escaped being addressed in the legislation. Perhaps the best example of this may be provided by Arthur Crabtree's comments on the weaknesses of ABE. "One of the weaknesses of the present ABE program," he stated, "is the lack of a commonly accepted purpose, both in its origin and in its implementation. Is its basic purpose to train disadvantaged adults for employemt? Is it to give them a foundation of literate understanding for improve (sic) functioning as citizens, parents, and homemakers? Is

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(1) Paul G. Taylor, Associate Professor, Department of Adult and Occupational Education, College of Education, Kansas State University, Bluemont Hall 347, Manhattan, KS 66502

it all of these? This is no mere academic question," he continued. "Upon its answer depends in large measure the nature of subject matter used, the selection of the teaching and administrative personnel, the choice of teaching method, and , indeed, the whole tenor of the program." While this statement may sound familiar to ABE practitioners today, it was written for the Griffith and Hayes edited volume Adult Basic Education: The State of the Art which appeared in 1970.

Statement of Purpose

The purposes of this study were to identify, describe, and obtain a national perspective on issues concerned with the federal legislating of basic education for adults. An ultimate goal is to make practical use of the findings: together with the response to the NACAE public hearings and the activity of the Legislative Unit of the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), to influence the direction of the federal legislation and subsequently the national ABE program. To quote Norman Cousins (1981) in Human Options, "there is a tendency to mistake data for wisdom...Unobstructed access to facts can produce unlimited good only if it is matched by the desire and ability to find out what they mean and where they lead " (p. 104).

Methodology

A review of the literature and discussion/interviews with local, state, and national level ABE practitioners (viz., teachers and administrative persons) resulted in the identification of several points of concern over the years with the provision of basic education for adults authorized and funded by the federal Adult Education Act. They were categorized under four major headings: Congressional, Federal Administrative, State-Local Operational, and Structural.

Congressional issues originate in the legislative branch of the federal government and deal mainly with the INTENT of Congress as expressed in areas such as purposes of the Act, legislative priorities, definition of terms (or lack of them), funding authorizations (as a mark against future appropriations), and block granting as opposed to categorical funding of programs.

Federal Administrative issues relate to the further clarification of federal law by regulation, and the compliance-management concerns especially exercised by the Division of Adult Education Services in the Department of Education.

State-Local Operational issues affect the design and delivery of ABE to eligible persons. Many of the significant areas covered by this category have been surveyed by the AAACE Legislative Unit; that is, Section 310, administrative ceilings, state plans, high school credentialing, bilingual programming, and state required matching funds.

Structural issues relate to the form and content of the Adult Education Act as a piece of legislation.

A number of points were written into a twenty-seven item, forty response questionnaire, which, using a 5 point Likert scale, called for two response types: extent to which a factor should apply and a measure of the amount of agreement-disagreement. The questionnaire, "Legislating Basic Education For Adults", was published in the October 1983 number of Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research. A shorter form of this questionnaire, which contained sixteen items, was mailed to state adult education newsletter editors. The short form of the national questionnaire was also used at conferences and other gatherings of adult educators.

Procedures used to analyze the data included frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, t-tests, and ANOVA.

The Questions

There were two types of questions: agreement or disagreement, and a measure of the extent to which a particular factor should (or should not) be considered in any legislation for the basic education of adults. A five point Likert scale was used for the response with one meaning either strongly disagree or absolutely no extent; two meaning disagree or almost no extent; three (the neutral point) meaning uncertain; four meaning agree or to some extent, and five meaning strongly agree or to a large extent. While some specific knowledge of the Adult Education Act may have been needed and helpful for a few of the questions, most were general enough to have been answered in terms of issues involved in almost any legislating of federal programs in the field of education; namely, role and control factors.

The questions are listed below. The letters SF in the parenthesis after certain items indicate that the question was used for the short form of the questionnaire. This form was given/completed at the conference session.

1. To what extent should there be a federal policy-making role in the basic education for adults? (SF)

2. To what extent should the federal role include funding for the basic education of adults? (SF)

3. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the current statements of purpose of the Adult Education Act? (SF)

   (a) "enable all adults to acquire basic skills necessary to function in society,

   (b) enable adults who so desire to continue their education to at least the level of completion of secondary school, and

   (c) make available to adults the means to secure training that will enable them to become more employable, productive, and responsible citizens."

4. To what extent should local programs determine who ought to receive basic education? (SF)

5. To what extent should state departments of education determine who ought to receive basic education? (SF)

6. To what extent should federal legislation determine who ought to receive basic education? (SF)

7. To what extent has the Adult Education Act restricted the development of program practices at the local level that might have been advantageous? (SF)

8. Currently there are many federally authorized and funded programs of an adult education nature (e.g., Job Training and Partnership Act, Agricultural Extension). To what extent should coordination, cooperation, and consultation be mandated by any legislation at:

   (a) the local level

   (b) the state level

   (c) the federal level? (SF)

9. To what extent should the Adult Education Act provide the following national services?

   (a) funds for research

(b) development of "promising approaches and innovative methods"

(c) dissemination

(d) evaluation of research and development

(e) an information clearinghouse

10. Section 315, Subpart (a) was amended in 1981 to limit the amount of appropriations "to carry out the Adult Education Act" to $100 million in each of the fiscal years 1982, 1983, and 1984. Originally, Congress had authorized $290 million for fiscal year 1983 with the same intended scope of work. To what extent should the ABE program be held accountable for the implementation of all provisions of the Act?

11. To what extent should the Adult Education Act require the reporting of program data on the following:

    (a) social and personal outcomes of participants

    (b) reading and math grade levels

    (c) employability skills (SF)

12. To what extent should any required reporting of program outcomes be determined by:

    (a) locally established impact data

    (b) state education department established impact data

    (c) U.S. Department of Education established impact data

    (d) the wording of a Section in an Adult Education Act

The following questions asked for a level of agreement.

13. What is your opinion of the (federal) Administration's position that the Adult Education Act be consolidated with the Vocational Education Act? (SF)

14. The emphasis of the Adult Education Act supported programs should be directed toward the "level one" (e.g., 0 to 4th grade level, functional illiterate) participant. (SF)

15. The loss of the Adult Education Act and allocated funds would greatly reduce the provision of adult basic education in your area. (SF)

16. The loss of the Adult Education Act and allocated funds could be made up by a combination of state and private funding and the extensive use of volunteers. (SF)

17. With all the talk about abolishing the Department of Education and cutting federal spending, would you agree or disagree that any federal influence might be more appropriate for adult than elementary or secondary education?

18. Giving sufficient time and resources, the Adult Education Act should require that ABE programs employ only professionally trained, state certified administrators, instructional staff, and counselors. (SF)

19. Local ABE programs should first provide their services to adults who demand them (e.g., GED preparation) and secondly to adults described as the "least educated and most in need" of services. (SF)

20. "...the failure to attract the least educated is attributable in part to local adult educators' inclination to serve adults who are striving to earn their high school diploma and are demanding services. This goal is often not part of the motivation of those functioning at the fourth grade level and below."

21. Programs of ABE should be permitted to charge fees to persons who can and are willing to pay for the services. (SF)

22. States should receive financial incentives based on demonstrated levels of commitment to the provision of basic education for adults (e.g., matching increased additions of state or private dollars).

23. Currently states are permitted to carry over unexpended funds from one fiscal year to the next. States should be penalized (in some way) for not expending all of their federal funds for the ABE program during a fiscal year.

24. The responsibility for the implementation of the Adult Education Act should remain in your state's education department.

25. The provision for a National Advisory Council on Adult Education should be continued.

26. The Adult Education Act should be written to assure that the membership of the National Advisory Council on Adult Education be representative of the field of adult education.

27. Which of the following options do you prefer: (Check only one response)

(a) reauthorization of the current Adult Education Act with some revision

(b) consolidation of the Adult Education Act with the Vocational Education Act

(c) a new Adult Education Act which remains categorical (separate)

(d) the federal government out of the basic education for adults business

(e) need more information/knowledge to respond to any question about federal legislation for adult education

(f) other (write in):

Findings and Conclusions

At this time, February 1984, and with space limitations, the presentation of findings from the questionnaires and conclusions is not possible. A discussion of results will be published in the April number of *Lifelong Learning: Omnibus of Practice and Research*. Subsequently, additional publication and presentations of results will take place. It is the desire of the researcher to make these data available to any interested parties.

Implications

The major implication for this study is to provide the field and Congressional committees with information to consider when deciding the future of the federal role in the basic education of adults: specifically the Adult Education Act. Further implications relate to the discussions about program planning, instructional purposes-outcomes, and evaluation of ABE. In addition, several questions were written to examine as intent-practice elements, and to be used eventually to compare and contrast with any new or amended Adult Education Act.

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF COSTS AND PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF POSTGRADUATE CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR MISSISSIPPI PHARMACISTS

Bruce J. Bellande[1]

Abstract

Data were collected through a mail survey and the effectiveness of continuing education experiences was determined by means of a scale specifically designed to measure how thoroughly the respondents' continuing education experiences had met 11 pharmacy continuing education goals as developed in a Delphi study. Direct and indirect monetary costs incurred by respondents were determined and analyzed. Comparisons of costs and perceived effectiveness of different types of continuing education activities as well as statistical analyses were performed.

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, the emerging importance of continuing education for professionals has been manifested in the enactment of increasing numbers of licensing regulations and statutes requiring mandatory participation. Today 27 states, either through actions of their legislatures and/or state licensure boards, have mandated compulsory participation in continuing education by pharmacists seeking relicensure.

Implicit in the issue of mandated professional continuing education are several important questions. What are the explicitly stated, as well as the implied objectives of continuing pharmaceutical education? Are these objectives accomplished by mandating continuing education for pharmacists? What benefits, both real and perceived, are gained by continuing education? Do these accrued benefits justify the costs to the practitioners? Are there more cost-effective methods available to accomplish the goals of continuing pharmaceutical education? Numerous studies have been conducted to address one or more of these questions. Unfortunately, there exists little consensus among study results.

Few would disagree with the reasons for continuing pharmaceutical education. It is widely recognized that once the pharmacist completes a formal preservice educational program, continuing advances in research and technology will signficantly alter the currency of his knowledge as well as that of the profession. New and different products and procedures are continually being developed, bringing changes in the style, structure, and delivery of health care services. Professional and ethical issues arise, fostering the need for better-informed practitioners (Pellegrino, 1969). These factors among others led to the promotion of and participation in continuing education activities by pharmacists.

Even though cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analyses have been valuable techniques used in the public policymaking process for more than two hundred years, they have been used only sparingly in the field of health care and for less than twenty years. The most recent applications of these techniques have been confined primarily to medical care studies directed toward influencing policymakers (Bloom, 1981).

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[1] Bruce J. Bellande, Associate Director, Division of Continuing Education, The University of Mississippi, University, MS 38677.

PURPOSE

As previously discussed, there exists a manifest need for research to aid policymakers, pharmacists, and educators in resolving complex public policy concerns. Therefore, given the timeliness and significance of this issue the purpose of the present study was to determine from a sample of licensed pharmacists practicing in Mississippi (a) the costs associated with continuing pharmaceutical education, and (b) the perceived effectiveness of such activities. More specifically, the objectives of the study were: to develop by means of the Delphi Method a comprehensive list of pharmacy continuing education goals; to determine by means of an assessment scale the effectiveness of selected continuing education experiences as perceived by a random sample of pharmacists licensed and practicing in Mississippi; to calculate direct and indirect monetary costs incurred by practitioners according to different types of continuing education activities; to compare the costs and perceived effectiveness of different types of continuing education activities; and to determine if a relationship exists between certain demographic characteristics of Mississippi pharmacists and (a) the types of continuing education activities selected and (b) the costs and perceived effectiveness of such experiences.

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected by a mail survey using an instrument specifically designed for this study. The population from which a random sample was drawn consisted of 2,180 licensed pharmacists engaged in active practice in Mississippi during the 1981-82 licensure year.

Effectiveness of continuing education was determined by means of an effectiveness scale specially designed to measure how thoroughly the respondents' continuing education experiences had met a set of 11 generic goals of continuing pharmaceutical education. These goal statements were developed after three rounds of deliberation by a Delphi panel consisting of 15 experts in the fields of adult education and continuing pharmaceutical education. The panelists also assigned a weight to each goal statement based on its relative importance to the other statements. This made it possible to rank goals from least to most important and to determine relative importance of goal effectiveness in other analyses.

An effectiveness scale designed expressly to measure the respondents' assessment of their overall continuing education experiences was used to quantify perceived goal effectiveness. Respondents were instructed to assess the effectiveness of continuing education experiences according to how thoroughly the goal statements were achieved. The effectiveness scale consisted of percentages ranging from 0 to 100.

To analyze overall continuing education effectiveness, two techniques were used. First the mean and median were calculated for each goal statement based on all respondents' assessments of how well their experiences achieved a particular goal. Second, an Overall Effectiveness Value (OEV) was calculated using the weight assigned to each goal by the Delphi panel and the mean percentage of effectiveness measured by goal accomplishment. The following formula was used to calculate the OEV:

$$\text{OEV} = \frac{\text{Total Weighted Rate of Effectiveness (TWRE)}}{\text{Maximum Weighted Rate of Effectiveness (MWRE)}}$$

$$\text{TWRE} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\text{PWR} \times \bar{X})$$

$$\text{MWRE} = \Sigma \quad \text{PWR} \times 100$$

Where PWR = Panel's Weighted Rate for each goal statement

$\bar{X}$ = Respondents' mean effectiveness rating for each goal.

Costs associated with continuing education were analyzed according to two major categories: direct and indirect costs. Direct costs were defined as those expenses paid directly by the pharmacists. Indirect costs were expenses paid by sources other than the pharmacists (e.g., continuing education expenses paid through the drugstore or by the employer, pharmaceutical manufacturers, etc.).

Continuing education costs were further analyzed according to the type of educational activity reported by the respondent. The two major categories examined were group and independent programs and activities. Group learning programs and activities were operationally defined as educational activities requiring actual physical attendance and face-to-face contact. Examples of such activities include conferences, institutes, short courses, and educational sessions held in conjunction with conventions. Independent learning courses and activities included those which could be completed without physical attendance or face-to-face contact. Examples of such activities include correspondence courses, audio and video cassettes, journal reading, and examinations. Finally continuing education expenses were classified according to five expenditure categories: tuition and fees, supplies and equipment, travel and subsistence, miscellaneous expenses, and personnel and relief time.

Comparisons of costs and perceived effectiveness of different types of continuing education activities were examined according to program title, type, and sponsorship. For each of these, cost-effectiveness ratios and cost per Continuing Education Unit (CEU) were calculated.

Statistical analyses included the formulation and testing of four null hypotheses. Of these, two hypotheses addressed types of continuing education activities selected by survey respondents and two focused on the cost and perceived effectiveness of selected activities. The following types of continuing education activities were treated as dependent variables: total number of programs reported, total number of programs reported by type (group or independent), total number of CEU's reported, and total number of CEU's reported by type (group or independent). Independent variables examined in the analysis included: demographic characteristics (age, sex, education) and practice characteristics including practice environment (chain, community, institutional), professional experience, year of initial licensure (pre-1962, 1963-74, 1975-82), employment position (owner, administrator, employee), status (full time, part time), membership in professional organizations, and community population. One- and two-way analyses of variance statistical tests were used to determine if significant relationships were present between demographic and practice characteristics of respondents, types of continuing education activities selected and costs and perceived effectiveness of these activities.

RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS

Responses representing 43.6% of those surveyed were used for data analysis. A follow-up telephone survey of nonrespondents revealed no major differences in demographics and practice characteristics between those who responded and those who did not.

It was found that continuing education experiences were perceived to be less than 62 percent effective in accomplishing the goals developed in this study. The highest average assessed value of effectiveness given any single goal was 74 percent and the lowest was 44 percent. With an overall effectiveness rating of approximately 62 percent, continuing education experiences examined in this study were not perceived by respondents as being very effective. Although no set standard has been established with which to compare a 62 percent effectiveness rating, a perception that almost 40 percent of one's continuing education experiences have been ineffective is significant. Thus, nearly 40 cents of every dollar expended for continuing education is spent on educational experiences perceived to be ineffective. This estimate is probably conservative since many of the continuing education activities, when assessed on a program by program basis, were perceived to be less than 60 percent effective.

Although it is recognized that there are high quality programs offered, an efficacy assessment of only 62 percent strongly suggests that there are many poor ones as well. One other factor which has a bearing on this effectiveness rating should be recognized. Because Mississippi has a mandatory continuing education requirement, many pharmacists oppose being coerced into participation, and therefore may be biased in thinking that continuing education is ineffective and a waste of time.

The total cost of continuing education according to program type (group and independant) and expenditure category was also calculated. Pharmacists in this study reported spending a total of $32,816 for their continuing education in 1982-83. Thirty percent of this amount was paid directly by the pharmacists.

Average total cost to fulfill continuing education requirements for each participant in this study was calculated at $301. With approximately 1,800 pharmacists actively practicing in the state and using $301 as the average total per capita cost spent to fulfill continuing education requirements, an extension of these figures results in a total of over $540,000 as being expended during the period of this study. This figure is somewhat conservative since there are over 2,600 pharmacists licensed to practice in this state. Assuming that all of these licenses are renewed annually, total costs for continuing education escalate to over $780,000. Viewed another way, continuing education costs pharmacists approximately $30 per hour or $300 per CEU. Of these costs, the pharmacists pay $9 per hour while other sources pay the balance. For the most part, these other sources include employers and drug manufacturers. In the case of owners and partners, they are represented as business expenses.

The largest component of the average total cost is represented by personnel and relief time, especially the pharmacist's time. These per capita costs comprise $136 of average total cost with travel and subsistence costs a close second at $127, and tuition and fees at $36.

In an earlier discussion pertaining to the overall effectiveness of continuing education, it was stated that approximately 40 cents for every dollar expended for continuing education was spent on ineffective experiences. Assuming that the total dollar cost for continuing education is $780,000 annually, $312,000 of this total is spent for learning experiences perceived as being ineffective. When cost and effectiveness are viewed from this perspective, the importance of developing and conducting effective continuing education activities, regardless of whether or not attendance is compulsory, is evident.

Up to this point, cost and perceived effectiveness of continuing education have been examined based on overall experiences. A comparison of cost and perceived effectiveness for specific types of continuing education experiences was also made. The assessment of program effectiveness based on type of program resulted in seven of the eleven goals being accomplished more effectively by group programs than by independent learning activities. Average effectiveness assessments for group programs ranged from the highest of 69.8 percent to the lowest of 44.8 percent while those for independent learning activities ranged from 71.1 to 35.2 percent.

Comparisons of cost and effectiveness for programs by type were made based on the calculation of a Cost Effectiveness Ratio (CER) which represented total cost for a program or activity divided by its Overall Effectiveness Value (OEV). OEV's were calculated using weighted values of goals and effectiveness assessments. Cost Effectiveness Ratios calculated are inversely proportional to effectiveness (i.e., the smaller the CER, the more effective and the less costly the activity).

Independent learning activities were found to be almost five times more cost effective than group programs. Average total cost differed by $104 and average QEV's by 0.003. Both of these figures were higher for group programs than for independent activities. These data indicated that group programs cost more than twice as much as independent activities and were perceived to be only slightly more effective.

Although this study did not propose to examine programs beyond the group and independent level, the researcher's curiosity prevailed and programs were further divided into six groupings for examination. In the group category, regional professional meetings had the lowest average CER (125) but also the lowest average OEV (.597). The least cost-effective group programs were live lecture. Journal articles provided the most cost-effective means for the independent learning activities (average CER = 73). Correspondence instruction achieved the largest average effectiveness value (OEV = .613). Audio cassettes were the least cost effective of the independent learning activities (average CER = 340).

Sponsors or providers of continuing pharmaceutical education were also compared based on their cost effectiveness. It was found that journal providers offered the most cost-effective activities (average CER = 75) and the Mississippi Pharmaceutical Association offered the least cost effective (average CER = 605). Programs offered by the Mississippi Society of Hospital Pharmacists were assessed the most effective (average OEV = .755), drug manufacturers the least (average OEV = .572).

Finally, a series of statistical analyses were conducted to determine if significant relationships existed between certain demographic and practice characteristics and the types of continuing education activities selected and their cost and perceived effectiveness. Demographic characteristics such as age, sex, and education did not influence the magnitude of participation measured by total number of programs and CEU's or the participation patterns or preferences for programs by type (group and independent). It was found, however, that certain practice characteristics did influence participation in continuing education. Practitioners employed in chain pharmacies reported a significantly larger number of CEU's than did community pharmacists. The majority of these CEU's were reportedly completed through independent study with significantly larger numbers reported by chain pharmacists than their colleagues employed in institutional and community pharmacies.

The position of the pharmacist within his work setting influenced participation patterns. Administrators reported significantly larger numbers of group programs than did owners. Although a significant relationship was not found, employees also reported participation in fewer group programs than did administrators.

Community size within which the pharmacist practices influenced the total number of CEU's reported. A significantly larger number of total CEU's were reported by pharmacists practicing in communities with populations greater than 25,000 than was reported by those practicing in communities with less than 5,000 people.

Members of the Mississippi Pharmaceutical Association reported a significantly larger number of group program participation and earned fewer CEU's from independent activities than did nonmembers. Clearly membership in the state pharmaceutical association represents a significant influence on members toward group learning activities.

Statistical tests to determine the relationship of demographic and practice characteristics and program type (group and independent) on cost effectiveness of continuing education experiences revealed that age, sex, and education when compared with program type had no significant influence on the cost effectiveness of program participation. Of the practice characteristics examined, status, year of licensure, membership in MSPhA, and community population, when compared with program category, were found to have a significant influence on the cost effectiveness of continuing education experiences. Even though these relationships were found to be significant, statistical calculations designed to measure the amount of these relationships which could be explained were very small--indicating that other factors not included in these analyses were having a greater influence than those examined. Additional research in this area is needed to determine and analyze these factors.

The analysis of cost and effectiveness cannot tell us which continuing education programs pharmacists should or will engage in, for this choice is up to the individual. The analyses and comparisons of cost and effectiveness offered here, however, do provide a framework for organizing information about the cost, effectiveness, and efficiency of such activities. With these results providers and consumers of continuing education activities and policymakers can make more enlightened decisions.

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PARTICIPATION PATTERNS IN CREDIT AND NON-CREDIT COURSES

Jill Campbell[1]
Doe Hentschel[2]
Kathleen Rossi[3]
Louis M. Spiro[4]

Abstract

There has been a prevailing, unresearched belief that there is a relationship between credit and non-credit participation among adult students in higher education, with non-credit enrollment serving as an entry into the academic environment. This study examined the participation patterns of 362 adults in a multi-institutional setting. Findings indicate that there are different participation patterns for non-credit, credit degree and credit non-degree students and very little cross-over from non-credit to credit. The total population exhibited a high degree of institutional loyalty, with credit non-degree students being the most likely to study from more than one institution. Credit degree students were the most active participants over time and non-credit and credit non-degree students showed similar patterns with the highest percentages being low participants. Implications for curricular design and marketing are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Demographic shifts, technological revolution and economic upheaval are having an impact on American higher education. With enrollment data serving as the base for resource allocation and planning, college administrators are aggressively seeking ways to offset the predictable decline of traditional, full-time students. The increase in participation of adults in college programs in the last decade is enticing, even more so when one realizes that the increase in adult learners represents only a small fraction of the potential market (Cross, 1981). Continuing education administrators, whose goals and activities have for so many years seemed marginal to the central life and health of their institutions, are finding that the pressure to increase the enrollment of adults in credit courses, thus adding precious FTE's to bolster budgets, is intense.

Conventional wisdom holds that potential re-entry students, fearing tests, grades and other academic accoutrements, will enroll in non-credit courses to test the academic waters with successful experiences supposedly encouraging later enrollment in credit courses. Non-credit continuing education is growing faster than any other area in higher education, (Cross, 1981, p. 37) having increased by 220 percent in the decade between 1970 and 1980 (New York State Education Department, 1983), so the population of non-credit participants could be a veritable gold mine for colleges and universities if they are, in fact, learners actually "testing the academic waters."

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[1] Jill Campbell, Assistant Director of Analytic Studies

[2] Doe Hentschel, Dean of Adult and Continuing Education

[3] Kathleen Rossi, Student Intern, Office of Analytic Studies

[4] Louis M. Spiro, Director of Analytic Studies, all of SUNY College at Brockport, Brockport, NY 14420

LITERATURE REVIEW

The increase in adult students in higher education since the late 1960s has spawned interest in research on re-entry students (see, for example, Astin, 1976; Bielby, 1981; Lyman-Viera and Boggs, 1976; May, 1977). This growing body of literature emphasizes the need for and use of supportive services during the transitional period of re-entry and the impact on life style, self-concept and interpersonal relationships of the re-entry students. The few longitudinal studies which have been conducted focus on patterns of and reasons for attrition in degree programs (Losty and Broderson, 1980; Mardian, 1981) with no attention to participation in non-credit courses.

Adult education participation research tends to focus on learners in specified settings (e.g., recreational programs, graduate courses, workshops, etc.) thus the relationship between learning experiences organized within credit or non-credit institutional frameworks is ignored. Mocker and Spear (1982) present a conceptual framework of types of learning experiences based on locus of control. Formal, non-formal and informal learning within this framework could all include both credit and non-credit instruction, and again, participation patterns within and among these institutionally different modes of delivery are not explored.

This lack of research on similarities, differences and relationships between credit and non-credit participation leaves practitioners operating in a void, and has allowed the conventional wisdom about participation patterns to go unchallenged. The purpose of this study was to begin to examine the conventional wisdom by describing the participation patterns of adults in credit and non-credit courses at a variety of institutions. Questions specifically addressed were:

1. Do adult students exhibit loyalty to provider institutions, i.e., do they continue to enroll at the same institution over a period of time?
2. Does non-credit enrollment typically precede credit enrollment?
3. Is participation rate related to credit or non-credit participation?

METHODOLOGY

The data for this study were provided by a four-page survey instrument designed by the researchers. It included demographic information such as sex, age category, family status, occupation and educational background. The heart of the survey consisted of historical and present course information. Information obtained for previous and current courses included the number of courses taken, titles, credit or non-credit status, reasons for taking the courses and the institution from which each course was taken. Respondents were asked whether the very first continuing education course they had taken had been credit or non-credit and through which institution it had been offered. Factors influencing enrollment and future educational plans were also covered.

The study was conducted at a suburban community education center which served as the host site for credit courses from a small private college, a large private university, the local community college and a public comprehensive college. Students from all four institutions were surveyed as well as students from the non-credit courses offered by the school district operating the center. Instructors from the five institutions administered and collected the instrument during all classes meeting on a selected Tuesday evening, thus the design itself controlled for participation variables associated with location and timing.

Full-time students were eliminated from the study so that results would focus on part-time continuing education students; this yielded a sample of 362. Frequency and crosstabulation analysis were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Program on the Burroughs 6800. Frequencies were obtained for all variables and several composite variables were created to enable meaningful crosstabulation analysis.

Historical usage rates were obtained by totaling the number of credit and non-credit courses taken during each period and obtaining a mean value. Usage ranges were developed to enable classification of low (1.6 or fewer courses per year), medium (1.7-3.5 courses per year) and high (more than 3.6 courses per year) users.

Institutional loyalty was determined by comparing the institution in which the student was currently enrolled with the type of course and institutional location of the first Continuing Education (CE) course.

Historical loyalty was determined by comparing the current institution with all courses and institutions previously identified. If courses were taken only at the current institution, those students were considered very loyal. Others were divided into two groups: those taking only one course at another institution, and those taking more than one course at other institutions.

FINDINGS

The 362 respondents represented a diverse population, with 66 percent female and 33 percent male (1% no response); 66 percent were married and 34 percent single. The age ranged from 17 to over 61 with 61 percent between the ages of 22 and 40. Over 45% had completed some kind of postsecondary degree; 52 percent reported a high school diploma as their highest degree. A wide range of occupations were represented: 20 percent were secretaries; 14 percent, professionals; 13 percent, homemakers. Sales personnel, technical personnel, educators, laborers, administrators and the composite of all other occupations each ranged from 6-10 percent of the total sample. All institutions were represented in the sample and 35 percent of the courses were taken for credit, 65 percent for non-credit. Of the total sample, 22 percent were pursuing a degree, 13 percent were taking credit courses but not pursuing a degree. Only one respondent reported taking both credit and non-credit courses simultaneously; this questionnaire was eliminated from further analysis because of its uniqueness. The students were largely experienced continuing education students, with 67 percent reporting that they had taken previous continuing education courses.

The reasons students were enrolled in the courses is consistent with trends reported in the general literature (Cross, 1981); 56 percent indicated job/career related reasons; 34 percent indicated personal reasons; 22 percent, hobby/recreational interests. Further analysis of non-credit, credit degree, and credit non-degree students shows that the non-credit participants had the most diverse motivations and the highest percentages in personal reasons, and were virtually the only group enrolled for hobby/recreational purposes. Even so, 51 percent reported motivations related to job/career concerns, a total percentage very similar to the credit degree students (52 percent) though distributed quite differently among the four alternatives provided. The credit non-degree students were the most job-oriented learners (89 percent) with certification/licensure requirements motivating 52 percent of that population. Only five individuals (of 235) reported that they were taking a non-credit course to advance toward a degree; seven people indicated this non-credit course was being taken on an introductory, trial basis.

Loyalty

When asked to identify the CE courses they had taken in the past, the respondents reported a high degree of institutional loyalty in their participation patterns. Of the total sample, 72 percent reported taking courses only from the institution where they were currently enrolled over a period of more than 3 years; 14 percent had taken only one course at another institution, and 14 percent had taken more than one course at other institutions.

Analysis of loyalty and user status, using the data on the students' first reported CE class, gives a more complex answer to the question of institutional loyalty. (See Table 1). Credit degree students were the most loyal, with 55 percent of the respondents indicating that their first CE course was a credit course from the same institution. Non-credit students had taken 50 percent of their first courses from the current institution--41 percent for non-credit and 9 percent for credit. The credit non-degree students were the least loyal (and, with 41 percent not responding, they perhaps had the least trustworthy memories!); only 13 percent had taken their first CE course for credit from the current institution, while 43 percent had studied elsewhere first—30 percent for credit and 13 percent for non-credit.

Table 1
First CE Course Type and Institution

User Category	Credit, current institution	Credit, other institution	Non-credit, current institution	Non-credit other institution	No Response
Credit degree (n = 80)	55%	21%	1%	9%	14%
Credit non-degree (n = 46)	13%	30%	2%	13%	41%
Non-credit (n = 235)	9%	11%	41%	6%	34%

Non-credit/credit patterns

The data show little evidence of a typical pattern of credit enrollment preceded by non-credit enrollment, thus contradicting the conventional wisdom. Table 1 shows that only 10 percent (n = 8) of the current credit degree students and 15 percent of the credit non-degree students (n = 7) had enrolled in a non-credit CE course as their first experience. On the other hand, 76 percent (n = 60) of the credit degree students and 43 percent (n = 20) of the credit non-degree students had first selected credit courses.

Participation rates

Crosstabulation analysis of current user status and historical use shows that credit degree students are the most active participants, with 44 percent of the respondents reporting a mean of more than 3.5 credit courses per year. Non-credit students and credit non-degree students showed similar participation rates with the largest percentages being low users taking 1.6 or fewer courses per year. (See Table 2).

Table 2
Participation Rates in Credit and Non-Credit Courses

	Credit degree Students	Credit non-degree Students	Non-credit Students
Low Usage (0-1.6/year)	16% credit only	30% credit only	40% non-credit only
Medium Usage (1.7-3.5/year)	25% credit only	15% credit only	18% non-credit only
High Usage (3.6+/year)	44% credit only	9% credit only	6% non-credit only
No response	15%	44%	36%

IMPLICATIONS

Non-credit, credit degree and credit non-degree students appear to differ from each other in participation patterns. The assumption that the non-credit population has great potential for being transformed into credit students is suspect, and the belief that potential credit students will first enroll in non-credit appears to be unfounded.

Because of markedly higher participation rates and institutional loyalty, credit degree students hold the most promise for significant increases in institutional enrollments. Potential degree students are most likely to enroll first in credit courses and to enroll in degree programs from the institution where they took their first credit CE course. Institutions courting this population, then, would be well advised to promote credit courses which are integrally related to degree programs which are attractive and accessible to adults. Such degree programs should be marketed as complete entities, thus serving to attract degree-oriented adult students. Every attempt should be made to matriculate adult students rapidly, as credit non-degree students appear to be the most fickle of the user groups.

Even though this sample showed little cross-over from non-credit to credit participation, the similarities in motivation between the non-credit and credit degree students in all areas except hobby/recreation indicates the potential for that cross-over to be cultivated. Consciously developed curricular linkages between non-credit courses and degree programs and creative marketing strategies to stimulate desire for career advancement (a motivation noticeably lower for non-credit users than credit degree students) could create the bridge which is currently lacking.

Credit non-degree students appear to be highly pragmatic, driven by relatively short-term, job-oriented goals. The sporadic participation patterns of this group of students very probably represent a consumer orientation—they will go wherever they need to go to get the specific courses required. Institutions with curricula which relate to certification and relicensure requirements for various occupational groups should package such courses as programs which are specifically tied to the certification requirements. Such programs should then be visibly and consistently marketed to attract this clientele over the long term. Even though eventual matriculation ought not to be anticipated by the institution, more regular and loyal participation patterns could conceivably result from satisfied customers returning to have new needs met.

Further research into participation patterns of adult learners is certainly needed to further delineate the similarities and differences among these three groups. This preliminary study has focused on seeking data which will facilitate institutional decision-making; yet another avenue of exploration would focus on ways in which we, as professional educators of adults, can be more creative in assisting our clients in achieving their goals within the institutional frameworks available.

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ADULT UNIVERSITY STUDENTS:
HOW DO THEY EXPECT TO BE TREATED BY INSTRUCTORS?

Bartlett J. Finney [1]

ABSTRACT

Do adult students want more or less autonomy, leader-initiated structure and consideration than do traditional-age students? This study attempted to answer these questions by statistically analyzing adult and traditional-age college students' responses on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Significant difference, $p < .05$, was found in only one instance between the means of the two age groups, on the leader-consideration scale. The groups' means were all significantly greater, $p < .05$, than those of Halpin's (1957) sample, indicating little need for autonomy. The results suggest that the adult college students' expectations are similar to those of the traditional-age student.

INTRODUCTION

The university campus is gradually becoming more populated with persons 25 years old and older, often referred to as adult students. Presently, over one third of all college students are over the age of 25 (Betters-Reed, 1980). This change from 18 to 22 year olds (traditional-age students) may be the result of several factors including (but not exclusively): the declining birth-rate, economic recessions, and life change (Morstain and Smart, 1977). Adults may be personally motivated to return to school for a wide array of reasons (Billingham and Travaglini, 1981; Boshier, 1975; Burgess, 1971; Houle, 1961; Ma[illegible]n, Dougherty, and Skinner, 1979; Morstain and Smart, 1977; Rawlins, 1977). Demographic variables of adult learners have been the basis of several reseach efforts (Cross, 1979; Johnstone and Rivera, 1965; Penland, 1977; Tough, 1978). The fact remains that they are obviously different in many ways from the traditional-age college student: perhaps in background, experience, and needs, as well as age (Cross, 1979; Hughes, 1983; Knowles, 1978). One prediction is that by the year 2000, 20 million adults will be enrolled in college courses (Betters-Reed, 1980). Yet many universities and colleges fail to offer programs, services, or other special efforts directed specifically at the adult learner (Weinstock, 1978; Wolfgang and Dowling, 1981). The adult student may be perceived of as a just-in-time, new target consumer by university and college administrators (Hamilton and Wheeler, 1979).

Concern has been expressed over the treatment adults receive in the university setting (Cross, 1981). Travers (1974) observed that, in the past, learners were forced through rather disagreeable learning processes and stayed in the situation to gain promised rewards. If the learning environment is too unpleasant, adult learners may opt to withdraw, since the educational pursuit is often an incidental activity (Hughes, 1983). Or, the adult may choose to learn by another method. The adult generally has several alternative methods of learning available ranging from self-directed learning to formal, university college courses. Currently, with the expanding market of home (personal) computers, self-directed, personal learning may become more prevalent.

On-going research examines adult learners' motivation, performances, and needs in the academic setting. Hughes (1983) provides a synthesis of the literature on the non-traditional student in relation to the "transformation in higher education" (p. 51). Hughes (1983) also raises the question "What do they want from higher education?" (p. 51). Generally, the adult college student is not campus-focused in relation to activities other than learning (Hughes, 1983). In addition, he/she may need to be relatively self-oriented and confident in order to accept the challenges of younger students and academic rigor. In the college classroom, does the adult college student expect individual consideration or treatment? Or does he/she expect to function autonomously (on his/her own)? The purpose of this study was to determine if expectations of leader-initiated structure or autonomy in the university learning environment was a characteristic which significantly differentiated adult undergraduate students from tradional-age students. Autonomy was defined as functioning as a self-directing entity. Consideration was interpreted to mean behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in relationships between the leader and group members (Halpin, 1957). Initiating structure was defined to mean the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between the leader and group members, and in endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organizational channels, or communication, and ways of getting the job done (Halpin, 1957). An individual functioning autonomously would not need much leader-initiated structure.

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[1] Bartlett J. Finney, Associate Professor of Management and Director of the Center for Business and Economic Development, Cremer Hall, Emporia State University, Emporia, Kansas 66801.

The approach taken in this research was based on the concept that formal, academic learning is a coordinated, integral system. The course instructor assumes the role of a leader in this system. As such, he/she may influence both the quality and extent of learning. Stogdill (1974) refers to several studies on educational leadership in the classroom which was conducted in Canada. He concluded by stating "They produce convincing evidence that the leader behavior of teachers has a direct impact on their students' academic achievement" (p. 133). The researchers used the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), developed at Ohio State University. The LBDQ, in various forms, has been used to study need for autonomy and leadership behavior in a wide array of settings, including industrial, military, and educational institutions. The questionnaire is a descriptive instrument; there are no norms (Stogdill, 1974).

In a study of need for autonomy among vocational school students prepared to graduate, Stogdill and Coady (1970) utilized a form of the LBDQ with the hypothesis that a low score on the two scales would reflect a need for autonomy. The LBDQ Ideal form reflects the perception of ideal leader characteristics in two dimensions: leader-initiated structure and leader-initiated consideration. The LBDQ Ideal contains 40 items referring to ideal leader behavior; the respondent marks one of five choices of response; "always", "often", "occasionally", "seldom", and "never". Only 30 of the item responses are used for scoring purposes.

METHOD

The LBDQ was mailed to 500 full-time undergraduate students at Kansas State University; 332 (66.4 percent) completed and returned the questionnaire. The original sample was limited to students at Kansas State University (KSU), a land grant university at Manhattan, Kansas. The students college of enrollment included agriculture, architecture and design, arts and sciences, business administration, education, engineering, and home economics. Responses from traditional-age students were 51.8 percent (172) of the total; adult students were the remaining 48.2 percent (160). The mean age of the total group was 24.92 years; the majority (60.24 percent) were male students and single (60 percent).

Subsequent research has been performed in evening business classes at Emporia State University (ESU), Emporia, Kansas. Emporia State University has a traditional history of a teachers college with major emphasis placed on liberal arts and sciences. The LBDQ was administered the first night the classes met. Responses in this subsequent research totaled 223; 164, or 73.5 percent were traditional-age students; the remaining 59, or 26.5 percent, were adults. The students were enrolled in the school of business.

Analysis of variance for unequal groups was used in both research studies to determine what differences, if any, existed between the responses of the adult and the traditional-age students.

RESULTS

Using analysis of variance for unequal groups, the responses of the KSU students were nalyzed by sex, marital status, age, class, college, and status of enrollment. Significant ifference, $p < .05$ was found in only two categories: by college, on the leader-initiated tructure scale, and by age, on the leader-consideration scale.

The students enrolled in the KSU College of Architecture and Design and the KSU College f Home Economics had a higher value for leader-initiated structure as an ideal for learning han did their colleagues in the other five colleges. A similar comparison was not made at SU since the students were business majors.

At KSU the adult group mean on the first dimension, Leader-Consideration was 46.49 with he traditional-age group mean was 47.95. The adult students did not value leader consideraion as highly as their traditional-age colleagues. The testing of the two age group means on he Leader-Initiated Structure dimension did not uncover a significant difference, $p < .05$. similar analysis of the ESU business students responses did not reveal any significant ifference, $p < .05$, between the adult student group means and the traditional-age student eans on either dimension. Table 1 presents these comparisons.

TABLE 1
Comparison of Adult (Ad) Students' Means on the
LBDQ with those of Traditional-age (T-a) Students

Index	KSU Ad Students		KSU T-a Students		ESU Ad Business Students		ESU T-a Business Students	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
L-I S**	47.31	1.04	46.31	1.02	47.91	3.65	45.51	5.30
L-C***	46.49	.91	47.95	.89*	45.18	5.34	46.68	4.77

*Significant difference $p < .05$ **Leader-Initiated Structure ***Leader-Consideration

With a one sample t-test, the least square means and the standard deviations of the KSU students' responses and, subsequently, ESU students' responses, were tested against the means of Halpin's (1957) sample of educational administrators. Stogdill and Coady (1970) theorized that respondents having a need for autonomy would score significantly less, $p < .05$, than the educational administrators. In comparison with Halpin's sample means, significant ifference was found, $p < .05$, on both dimensions for all groups. Table 2 presents these comparisons.

TABLE 2
Comparison of Students' Means with Those of
Educational Administrators (Halpin, 1957)

LBDQ Index	Students		Educational Administrators		Mean Difference
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
L-I S**(KSU Adult)	47.31	1.04	37.90	4.4	9.41*
L-C***	46.49	.91	44.40	6.0	2.09*
L-I S (KSU T-a)	46.31	1.02	37.90	4.4	8.41*
L-C	47.95	.89	44.40	6.0	3.55*
L-I S (ESU Ad Bus.)	47.91	3.65	37.90	4.4	10.01*
L-C	45.18	5.34	44.40	6.0	.71*
L-I S (ESU T-a Bus.)	45.51	5.30	37.90	4.4	7.61*
L-C	46.68	4.77	44.4	6.0	2.28*

*Significant difference $p < .05$ **Leader-Initiated Structure ***Leader-Consideration

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IMPLICATIONS

The results suggest that adult university students expectations of leader-initiated classroom structure and consideration are similar to those expectations of traditional-age students. However, these results should not be construed or interpreted to suggest that lecture is the expected modus operandi: lecture is not synonymous with formality, structure and/or consideration. In fact, leader-initiated consideration suggests the use of two way communication, mutual understanding and active participation. Adult students may prefer structure and consideration because of their personal characteristics including multiple commitments and problem solving orientation (White, 1981). Or, they may be influenced by their past experience, since many of them are returning to college to complete a degree started years earlier, in their quest for self-satisfaction or self-actualization (Rawlins, 1977). However, the adult students' responses indicated an expectation that the university courses would be leader-directed with structure and consideration provided. Therefore, in the quest for educational excellence, the traditional, formal structured delivery system may need to provide a structured environment and special consideration for adults who choose to return or attend the university learning system. Models for learning should be developed which increase interaction and involvement without reducing structure and individual considerations.

Cross and Zusman (1979) found that time and cost were two prime factors (barriers) to adults who would like to continue their education. The adult perception is often described as "How much time do I have left?" versus the perception of the young, "What all do I want to do?" Perhaps these factors apply to the adult university students; they may feel that formal education is the most expedient, effective way to learn. Such a perception would reflect that the individual is functioning in a problem-solving mode. The adult learner's expectation of leader-initiated structure and consideration in the university class, may be based on need for expediency and efficiency. Faculty members planning to teach adults need to design learning techniques and methods which satisfy adult learners' constraints and expectations without usurping the traditionally sound university learning environment. To the adult functioning in the problem-solving mode, long-winded, rambling, lectures may not be perceived of as effective, efficient use of time, and/or adequate leader consideration.

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Adult versus Traditional Age Students: A Comparison of Their Self-Concepts

Richard J. George[1]

ABSTRACT

Appropriating a survey instrument with known reliability and validity, this paper demonstrates to the life long learning administrator the value of self-concept theory to the marketing analysis and planning process. Specifically, the results provide a rich theoretical, as well as pragmatic framework for measuring and understanding the aspirations of both traditional age and adult learners. The results indicate that significant differences exist between these two constituencies in terms of the ideal, actual, and social self. In addition, the gap between the adult learner's ideal and actual self gives credence to the presence of the self-esteem motive and supports the notion that education is perceived to be a valuable self-enhancement vehicle to reduce personal dissatisfaction. In essence, this paper introduces an easily understand and implemented methodology for higher education administrators to use as they face the impending enrollment crisis predicted for the 1980's and beyond.

BACKGROUND

Currently, post secondary higher education is being confronted with a life threatening situation. From the mid 1960's until the beginning of this decade, colleges and universities grew at almost 10% per year and by 1970 represented an industry with more employees than the commonly recognized giants as automobile and steel producers (George, 1983). As a result of this unprecedented growth, emanating from the post war baby boom, the number of young adults receiving college degrees has increased dramatically. Then the boom, or some may say the tidal wave, moved on leaving academic and economic destruction in its wake. Universities for the most part, viewed the tremendous influx of 18 year olds as more than a supplement to their base diet. Full time professors and part time instructors were hired. Entire new colleges were begun and new campuses erected. Unfortunately, universities can no longer rely on growth from this sector. For example, in 1994 this age group will number about seven million less than in 1980, a decrease of 23% (Breneman, 1982). Assuming that the matriculation rates remain constant, this would mean a decline in over 2.5 million college students nationwide or equivalent to one of every four students enrolled in 1980. Presented another way, this loss is equivalent to 500 colleges of 5000 students each, or 50 universities - one for each state - of 50,000 students each. As might be expected this situation presents an appalling picture to college administrators and trustees. Given this much hearalded projected decrease in the traditional age student population, colleges and universities have in some cases begun, and in others, escalated their efforts to satisfy the formal and non-formal educational needs of adults. Regrettably, however, many of these same institutions do not understand the extent of the similarities or differences that exist between 18 to 22 year olds and adult or lifelong learners.

In an attempt to profile their institutions and these varied constituencies, college administrators have employed a variety of demographic and attitudinal measures. While valuable for market definition, demographic data does not provide insight into the reasons why a student selects a particular institution and the ultimate satisfaction with that choice (George et.al., 1981). This paper addresses the shortcomings of the above noted methodologies via operationalizing the self-concept theory. According to self-concept theory, more than one concept of self exists - the ideal self ("the person I would ideally like to be"), the actual self ("the person I am") and the social self ("the person as I believe other people see me") (Rogers, 1951). In addition, there seems to be a consensus regarding the relationship between self-concept and the self-esteem motive (Epstein, 1980). The self esteem motive refers to the tendency to seek experiences that enchance self concept. Any discrepancy between the ideal and actual self is viewed as a measure of personal dissatisfaction and such dissatisfaction can be related to consumer behavior, particularly for products or services that deal with self-enhancement e.g. education (White, 1967).

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[1] Richard J. George, Associate Professor of Marketing, Saint Joseph's University, 5600 City Avenue, Philadelphia, PA 19131

This paper describes the employment of a 15 item semantic differential scale developed by Malhotra (1981) to measure the three self-concepts. Using test-retest methods to verify scale reliability and the multitrait- multimethod matrix approach to demonstrate reasonable validity, Malhotra (1981) constructed a scale appropriate for measuring a wide variety of self-concepts, person concepts and product concepts. Since self-concept scales developed in psychology typically have been based on student samples or other specific groups (Wylie, 1975), and since Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957), who popularized the use of the semantic differential as the measurement technique to determine perceptions of persons, used student samples in many of their studies, the opportunity to employ Malhotra's scale (also tested on students) for higher education marketing research was viewed as a positive factor.

This research reported herein assesses traditional and adult learners on each of these self-concepts. Do these constituents have similar images of their ideal, actual and social selves? What are the educational implications associated with these profiles? What about the self-esteem motive? Do significant differences exist between the ideal and actual self? Answers to these questions are essential for the higher education administrator to creatively design pedagogical or andragogical strategies during the difficult decade ahead.

METHODOLOGY

A sample of 125 degree-seeking students was chosen from the population of 4000 FTE (full time equivalent) students enrolled in a private institution located in a major metropolitan area in the Middle Atlantic States. The sample was divided between full and part time students because these descriptors evidenced high correlations with age. The mean age for the full time students was 20 years old, approximately 11 years younger than the part time members of the sample. In addition, over 80% of the part time (lifelong) learners were employed full time and 50% were married. Within the full versus part time categories, quota sampling based on sex, year in school and major matched the sample characteristics to the demographic variables of the respective populations.

Using a mail survey, the initial measure assessed the person that the student would "ideally" like to be, as characterized by the 15 scale items (7 point semantic differential) detailed in table 1. Like Malhotra who provides a rational for the specific period of time between surveys, the time interval between surveys was four weeks (1981, p. 458). The second survey asked the students to describe the person that he or she "actually" is. The third survey attempted to ascertain the person that "other people see."

Of the 125 students sampled, 104 students fully completed and returned all three surveys. The 83% participation rate was felt to be excellent. In addition, the sample characteristics continued to reflect key population parameters.

RESULTS

Tables 1 and 2 lists the mean scores for the two groups for the three measures of self. The results of the t-tests, indicating levels of statistical significance, are also presented.

TABLE 1
MEAN IDEAL AND ACTUAL SELF-CONCEPT VALUES FOR TRADITIONAL AGE VERSUS ADULT LEARNERS

	Ideal Self			Actual Self		
Scale Items[1]	Trad. Age	Adults	Significance[2]	Trad. Age	Adults	Significance
1. Rugged-Delicate	3.6	3.5	c	3.8	4.0	c
2. Excitable-Calm	5.0	4.9	c	3.6	3.5	c
3. Uncomfortable-Comfortable	6.5	6.4	c	4.6	4.5	c
4. Dominating-Submissive	2.8	3.0	c	3.8	3.4	b
5. Thrifty-Indulgent	3.8	3.8	c	4.2	4.0	c
6. Pleasant-Unpleasant	1.4	1.7	b	2.4	2.5	c
7. Contemporary-Uncontemporary	2.6	3.0	b	3.1	3.6	b
8. Organized-Unorganized	1.6	1.5	c	3.3	3.1	c
9. Rational-Emotional	2.6	2.4	c	3.8	3.8	c
10. Youthful-Mature	4.7	4.7	c	4.2	4.1	c
11. Formal-Informal	4.2	3.8	c	4.7	4.1	b
12. Orthodox-Unorthodox	3.8	3.8	c	3.7	3.4	c
13. Complex-Simple	3.6	3.5	c	3.5	3.3	c
14. Colorless-Colorful	6.1	6.0	c	5.2	5.2	c
15. Modest-Vain	2.7	3.8	a	3.3	3.6	c

TABLE 2
MEAN SOCIAL SELF-CONCEPT VALUES FOR TRADITIONAL AGE VERSUS ADULT LEARNERS AND ADULT LEARNERS MEAN VALUES FOR IDEAL AND ACTUAL SELF

	Social Self			Adult Learners		
Scale Items[1]	Trad Age	Adults	Significance[2]	Ideal Self	Actual Self	Significance
1. Rugged-Delicate	4.0	3.7	c	3.5	4.0	c
2. Excitable-Calm	3.9	3.5	c	4.9	3.5	a
3. Uncomfortable-Comfortable	4.9	4.8	c	6.4	4.5	a
4. Dominating-Submissive	4.0	3.0	a	3.0	3.4	c
5. Thrifty-Indulgent	4.3	4.2	c	3.8	4.0	c
6. Pleasant-Unpleasant	2.4	2.3	c	1.7	2.5	a
7. Contemporary-Uncontemporary	3.1	3.1	c	3.0	3.6	b
8. Organized-Unorganized	3.4	2.6	a	1.5	3.1	a
9. Rational-Emotional	3.5	3.6	c	2.4	3.8	a
10. Youthful-Mature	3.9	3.9	c	4.7	4.1	b
11. Formal-Informal	4.5	4.0	b	3.8	4.1	c
12. Orthodox-Unorthodox	3.9	3.6	c	3.8	3.4	c
13. Complex-Simple	3.5	3.2	c	3.5	3.3	c
14. Colorless-Colorful	5.3	5.0	c	6.0	5.2	a
15. Modest-Vain	3.2	3.9	a	3.8	3.6	c

Sample Size = 104

1. Rugged = 1, Delicate = 7
   "   "
   "   "
   Modest = 1, Vain = 7

2. a = significant at .05
   b = signigicant at .10
   c = not significant

Observe that despite the sizeable age differential between the traditional age and adult learners there are relatively few statistically significant differences between the two groups. In terms of the ideal self on the three variables (pleasant, contemporary, modest) in which the differences are significant, the life long learner is closer to the mid-point than the traditional age student. The actual self also produced three differences. The adult learners perceive themselves as more dominating, less contemporary, and more formal than their younger peers. Finally, socially there are four significant variances. Adult learners think others see them as more dominating, more organized, more formal and less modest than do the 20 year old students on the same criteria.

In an effort to capture the self-esteem motive, Table 2 presents the ideal versus actual self-concept for the adult learner segment of the sample. Note that on of the 15 scales there is a statistically signigicant discrepancy between the ideal and the actual self image. In essence, the adult learners measured strive to be calmer, more comfortable, more pleasant, more contemporary, more organized, more rational, more mature, and more colorful than they presently perceive themselves to be.

CONCLUSION

The results reported herein indicate that on 40% of the scales significant differences exist between the traditional age and the lifelong learner. In addition, several of the constructs manifest these variances across at least two of the three self-concept measures. The fact that such differences do exist are important to individuals responsible for adult education. Regardless of the nature and extent of the observed variations, the reality that these two constituencies are different in terms of three accepted measures of self-concept, strongly suggest that a singular educational philosophy may not adequately serve both groups. Although beyond the scope of this study, knowledge of self- concepts in conjunction with an awareness of the university's image on the same dimensions can be employed in designing marketing strategies, particularly in segmenting markets, positioning offerings, establishing communication objectives, determining media guidelines and introducing new programs. For example, are the ideal self-concepts the same for all students or are they different by sex, race, geographic location, and discipline (business versus humanities), to name but a few segmenting variables? In terms of positioning, how do the competing institutions rate in terms of the perception of the average or typical graduate? Are the students of one college considered more or less organized, rational, mature, etc. than their counterparts from competing schools? In addition, knowledge regarding self-concepts and the image of a university can provide specific direction for selecting advertising copy and media. For example, if via the ideal self-concept measure it is determined that students seek to dominate, then communications efforts depicting graduates in leadership positions might successfully attract such students. In addition, university spokespersons perceived as possessing characteristics consistent with the ideal self image of potential students would heighten congruency between the individual and the institution hopefully resulting in a higher probability of enrollment. In summary, awareness of the self-concept of a particular constituency and the university's position in the market will allow the higher education administrator to communicate more effectively with the goal of attitude reinforcement or modification.

The results of Table 2 give strong support to the presence of a self-esteem motive. Many of the discrepancies noted between the adult learner's ideal and actual self are addressed by higher education. One would not see it beyond the capacity of post secondary education to help make students more comfortable, contemporary, organized, rational and mature. If this in fact does represent a surrogate for personal dissatisfaction, then the tendency to seek education as an experience that enhances one's self-concept is consistent with the self-esteem motive. The key for the higher education administrator is to develop and communicate those programs that potential learners perceive as capable of shifting them from "what they are" to "what they want to be." Then and only then can the institution be credited with resposibly understanding and satisfying student needs.

Care must be exercised in interpreting this or any other data collected by the prescribed self-concepts scale. Obviously, the results of this study apply only to the selected institution. The worth of this borrowed methodology is that it provides an instrument of known reliability and validity for the college marketer to use in formulating a successful marketing strategy. The value of this methodology lies not with prediction but with understanding. Troubled times lie ahead for higher education. For individual institutions to maintain the status quo or even survive, those responsible need to realize a differential advantage in the market (s) that they currently serve, as well as creatively respond to new markets. Employing the self-concept construct with a scale capable of producing clear-cut and unequivocal findings offers higher education administrators a rich theoretical, as well as pragmatic framework for measuring and understanding student aspirations and college images.

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THE ROLE OF ENVIRONMENTAL COGNITION WHEN ADULT LEARNERS CHOOSE CENTERS FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

Donald A. Gogniat[1]

Abstract

This study confirms that environmental cognitions play a significant role in the decision process of adult learners when choosing centers for continuing education. Of the two groups of adult learners sampled, teachers appear to be more concerned with environmental factors than do nurses who are willing to travel longer distances and, consequently, to unfamiliar areas more often. Such behavior is attributed to a desire to finish a baccalaureate program instead of a single course as is the case of most teachers in this study.

Administrators of continuing education programs underestimated the role of environmental cognitions in the decision process of adult learners and overestimated the role of academic considerations.

We are living in a time of change. In human history, nothing has compared to how quickly new knowledge may dislodge old paradigms. Never before have we been forced to learn new techniques at such a rapid rate. Suddenly, a pico-second replaces a nano-second.

Individuals wonder how this rapid change will affect their lives. What will they have to know to maintain present standards? How will upward mobility be possible? What new knowledge will be most useful? Adults are aware of the technological revolution occurring now. Consequently, how to prepare for the future is a question many adults are asking. Those who assume continued learning is essential are pursuing education.

Formal continuing educational experiences, where academic accomplishment is recorded, have increased in number dramatically over the last 10 years. Although it is possible to obtain credit from media courses and correspondence courses due to insightful administration by educators, it is true that the overwhelming majority of adult learners who desire formal credit for their learning experiences must travel to educational facilities away from their homes.

Decisions about movement in space are made by everyone, every day. Our confidence in effectively interacting with the environment makes some of these decisions almost second nature. When forced to travel to a specific location outside of our usual behavioral region, however, the importance of how we "see" or think about the environment is magnified. Centers for continuing education are at times located outside of one's usual behavior region. This study attempts to determine the factors influencing adult part-time students when making decisions to attend college credit courses; and specifically, what role environmental cognition plays in center selection.

Three groups were sampled: teachers who were mainly pursuing requirements for Pennsylvania permanent teacher certification; registered nurses who were in an extended baccalaureate degree program; and continuing education administrators who were responsible for delivering part-time programs. All three groups were associated with The Pennsylvania State University. Data were collected from both adult learners and continuing education administrators at the branch campuses of McKeesport, New Kensington, Fayette and Beaver, all part of Penn State's Commonwealth Educational System, and all located in Western Pennsylvania.

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[1] Donald A. Gogniat, Area Representative, Continuing Education Department, The Pennsylvania State University, University Drive, McKeesport, Pennsylvania 15132.

In order to collect the needed cognitive information, a questionnaire was developed which would allow the researcher to decode the relationships among the major elements in the decision process of adult learners through a multi-dimension scaling technique. This was accomplished by means of 136 paired comparisons of the 17 cognitive variables thought to be important in the decision process (Table 1).

The respondent was to select the item that was of greater importance to him or her. If neither of the items were thought to be more important, the respondent had the option of making no selection, thereby indicating no preference. The output from the statistical manipulation of the questionnaire data shows geometric configurations of stimulus and subject points in specified dimensions as well as specified factors (only the factor scores are presented in this paper).

Selected Variables in the Decision Process
When Choosing Continuing Education Centers

Table 1

Categorized as Environmental in Nature	Categorized as Administrative or Personal Schedule in Nature	Categorized as Academic/Occupational in Nature
Familiarity with location	Time of class	Instructor
Ease of parking	Total number of sessions	Usefulness for job
Time of travel	Day of class	Subject matter
Traffic congestion	Registration procedure	Library resource
Safety of location	Length of class period	Number of credits
Distance to class	Number of sessions/week	

The findings indicated that teachers were concerned primarily with occupational considerations, a factor explaining .528 of the total proportion of variance. This finding substantiated previous literature concerning primary motivation for enrollment. Four other considerations were also found to be relevant in understanding the decision process of teachers. After occupational considerations, ease/safety considerations and personal schedule considerations were shown to be the most important components in the decision to register for courses. Of the teachers, 53% were concerned with aspects of ease of accessibility and location safety, and 47% were concerned with their personal schedules. With the addition of these considerations, the cumulative proportion of the explained variance increased by .112 for a total of.640. The third factor found to be significant in the decision process of teachers contained the considerations of personal convenience and the opportunity for convenient learning (named joy of convenient learning). In this factor, 57% of the adults were concerned with personal convenience, whereas 43% were concerned with subject matter with the stipulation that the courses be offered in areas they were familiar with and without traffic congestion. Factor three increased the cumulative proportion of variance by .062 for a total of .702. Environmental factors clearly influenced the decision process of teachers when registering for credit courses.

The second group of adults sampled were full-time working registered nurses. Unlike teachers, the primary concerns of nurses when scheduling courses were personal scheduling considerations. For this group, occupational considerations were still felt to be main reasons for enrollment; however, the question of "what course should I take" was translated into the rather tightly controlled curriculum of the degree program itself. The occupational goal was, therefore, a Bachelor of Science Degree, and not the value of any individual course. Factor one, personal schedule considerations, accounted for .412 proportion of the explained variance for this group.

Again as with teachers, four other considerations were determined to be important in the decision process of nurses. In factor two, occupational considerations surfaced as important for 52% of the nurses, while 48% felt distance to class was the predominant concern. These two additional components increased the cumulative proportion of variance by .122 to a total of .534. The third factor, obtained from the M.D. Pref analysis, yielded academic concerns (52% of the nurses) and ease/safety considerations (48%) as the major components of this factor. The addition of factor three increased the proportion of explained variance by .105, for a three-factor cumulative total of .639.

The second factor of the decision process of nurses selecting credit courses did indicate that distance was a concern; however, nurses appeared to be less concerned with environmental factors in general than teachers.

Continuing education administrators responsible for credit programs were the third group sampled. Since administrative decisions as to course offerings, locations, day of class, time of class, (as examples) clearly impact the success of any continuing education program, the degree of awareness by administrators of the adult population's cognition is crucial. The administrators surveyed were, for the most part, intuitively (or experientially) aware of factors important to adults deciding to attend courses.

Administrators correctly assumed occupational consideration to be of prime importance in factor one, accounting for .514 of the proportion of explained variance. In factor two, however, administrators tended to overestimate the importance of academic considerations in the decision process of adult learners. Sixty percent of all administrators felt the adult student would be concerned with such variables as subject matter, availability of library resources, or the identity of the instructor, whereas the adult student was primarily concerned with environmental factors. In general, it was shown that administrators tended to underestimate slightly the importance of environmental considerations in the decision process of the adult learner. The addition of factor two increased the cumulative proportion of explained variance by .099 to .613. In factor three, administrators identified variables which, in fact, were very similar to the major concerns of adult students. Although distance was underestimated by administrators in this factor, ease of parking, the total number of sessions, and the time of travel matched the cognitions of the adult student population surveyed. The total cumulative proportion of explained variance from all three factors for administrators was .679. This figure was, indeed, very close to the cumulative total obtained from the adult students of .702.

Analysis of the delineated spatial patterns of movement by adults to continuing education centers complemented the results of the multi-dimensional scaling analysis. The mapped patterns of student home addresses specifically confirmed: a) the lack of concern for absolute distance as a decision factor; b) the overlapping nature of the continuing education service areas; c) the importance of easily accessible center locations; d) the willingness of adults to leave their weekly activity space to attend courses at all seven centers surveyed. The adult learner appeared to be willing to commute substantial distances if the time of travel, time of class, and accessibility of the location were somewhat convenient.

Through the combination of multi-dimensional scaling and spatial analysis, it was shown that: environmental cognition was a significant determinant in the decision process of the adult learner when selecting a center for continuing education; and compression of class time into larger block periods greatly increased the drawing range of a center.

All of the adults sampled for this study were required to take credit courses to fulfill educational/professional goals. In a sense, both groups were captive audiences. Certainly, variations in the decision process of location selection by adults exists for non-credit courses. A limitation for generalizations about adult learners' spatial behavior is, therefore, built into this study.

As the changing demographics of the 1980's necessitates different types of educational opportunities for a non-traditional college student clientele, a closer analysis of what is needed to meet this challenge is essential. This study has shown that presently adults consider credit courses as somewhat highly specialized services. Consequently, they are willing to travel appropriately long distances to obtain these services. As competition increases for the adult learner, it will be interesting to monitor tributary area dimensions and shapes for continuing education centers through time. The innovators within higher education, the colleges and universities willing to meet the needs of this "new" student, will undoubtedly draw from large areas. How this will affect more traditionally oriented schools remains to be seen.

GETTING UNIVERSITY OUTREACH OFF THE DIET OF CRUMBS: WHAT WILL IT TAKE? IS IT WORTH IT?

Ralph Hambrick[1]
Carol Amato
John Pignato

Abstract

If universities are to fulfill their potential in our future knowledge society, university outreach must be a central focus of attention. New forms will be required to fulfill the university's traditional functions of knowledge creation and transmission. This paper provides a glimpse of possible new forms university outreach might take.

It is a recurring concern of persons responsible for university outreach (a term we use for adult/continuing/extension education, professional public service, applied research and technical assistance/consultation) that their function receives less than its deserved recognition at budget time, faculty tenure and promotion time, and or most other occasions when valued resources are allocated. Within the university, classroom teaching and disciplinary research always take priority, leaving only crumbs to the outreach activity. Not only must the outreach function compete on campus, but there is increasing competition off campus as well. Indeed, all university functions are receiving competition from consulting firms, business and industry, professional associations and governmental agencies.

If the university is to flourish, it may be necessary to reassess the role it plays on many fronts. Should that full reassessment occur, it is likely that outreach would be considerably expanded since many traditional functions would be "repackaged" for new clients, not traditionally served. Some persons think this repackaging has already reached its peak in the form of night classes for adults, and so forth. It has hardly begun to reach its potential.

The question facing universities is not whether the "knowledge business" will expand, but what share of the rapidly expanding knowledge market universities will claim. Our view of the issue is outlined in three points:

1. The most likely future of universities is to play a shrinking relative role in the total business. The absolute size of university activities will change little, but its place in the total knowledge market will decrease as that market continues to expand. Other, more adaptive, institutions will expand while universities stand still. (See Scenario #1 below.)

2. To prevent this static future with a declining share of the market, universities must make substantial change in the form of much of their activity and rhetoric. A major portion of this required change is in the institutional arrangements which govern and reflect the activities pursued. (See Scenario 2-5.)

3. Contrary to the concerns of many persons who wish to protect the traditions of the university, these changes do not violate, but indeed, enhance the traditional purposes of the university if they are viewed in terms of function, not just form. (See concluding discussion.)

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(1) Ralph Hambrick, Director, Center for Public Affairs, Virginia Commonwealth University, 919 West Franklin Street, Richmond, Virginia 23284; Carol Amato, Executive Director, Governor's Employment and Training Division, 417 East Grace Street, 4th Floor, Richmond, Virginia 23241; John Pignato, Assistant Director for Continuing Education, Virginia Commonwealth University, 919 West Franklin Street, Richmond, Virginia 23284.

Glimpses of University Futures

This scenario reflects our surprise-free, best guess about the future of the university.

* * *

Scenario #1: Holding On

One of the panels at the 2012 National Conference on Higher Education was titled "Making the University More Responsive to Societal Needs." The issues which had been identified and for which papers had been prepared included:

- how to make faculty outreach efforts a more important factor in the tenure-promotion process
- how to reduce the emphasis on purely disciplinary research and make multi-disciplinary efforts more valid
- how to broaden the university funding base so that funding is determined by more than student head count
- how to find some urban duplicate of the agricultural aid provided through land-grant institutions
- how to develop better linkage mechanisms between universities and government and business.

After the papers had been presented a senior professor serving as a panel discussant offered an unexpected personal, historical commentary. The following are brief excerpts from the panel transcript.

"I find the papers and the sweep of the discussion fascinating. It is fascinating because, despite what we think have been substantial changes in the university over the past half century, this panel evokes a strong sense of *deja vu*. These issues have been discussed my entire academic career.

"There have been progress and moments which seemed like genuine breakthroughs going back even before my career began. Before my time, in the 1930's and 40's, for example, 'institutes of governmental research and service' were formed at a number of state universities. There appeared to be a new wave of such institutes in the 60's and 70's, but many disappeared as federal funding for that kind of activity declined in the late 70's and 80's. During that period some persons thought that universities would make some significant changes in the way they organized themselves for professional service, but that never happened.

"In the 80's, the hi-tech rage brought on new interest in the university-industry connection. The sophisticated knowledge and skills on campus in many fields were in big demand and a heavy interaction began to take place between industrial research labs and the campus. Despite several efforts to emulate the Research Triangle, long range institutional change did not take place. Two concerns by the university ultimately choked off this connection, allowing independent research laboratories (IRL's) to flourish. The university concerns were the proprietary, secretive requirements of industrial research and the worry over excessive faculty consulting. Despite the example of Stanford and Yale, universities developed ethical codes printed in faculty manuals and consulting guidelines requiring no more than a six-month delay in the open publication of new findings and stringent limitations on faculty consultation. Industry interest in an active partnership with the university waned....

"A similar set of circumstances occurred in the late 90's and turn of the millenium as bio-techno-synergy (BTS) breakthroughs became the cutting edge of both industrial and government R&D. Even though BTS was a third generation spin-off of university research...."

What follows are four brief sketches which provide glimpses of how universities might respond to the future opportunities and challenges presented by the knowledge society. These are only glimpses, intended to stimulate thinking about what might be possible, desirable, and reasonable. Scenario #1, from our perspective, is likely enough and undesirable enough to compel serious attention to Scenarios 2 through 5...and more.

* * *

Scenario #2: Building Outreach into the Funding Formula

During the 1996 session of the General Assembly, the state made a radical shift in the way it viewed, and funded, higher education. Outreach is now part of the funding formula used to provide state allocations to institutions of higher education. The system is directly parallel to the funding of credit instruction where 30% of funds are provided through fees and 70% from state general funds. Outreach programs are now funded by the same 30/70 formula. Further, it is expected that the outreach program will make up approximately 1/3 of the total effort of each university.

The university's outreach agenda committee operates parallel with the curriculum committee, although it is much more active. Whereas the university curriculum is relatively stable, with only incremental change, outreach is much more vital with a 20 to 40% change in program content each year.

Scenario #3: Vouchers - Putting an Old Idea to Work in a New Place

The year was 2003 when the appropriation finally passed. The proponents of vouchers for university technical assistance and applied research had been pushing for the program since the 80's, but the idea had met with firm resistance, especially from private consulting firms which argued that it was unfair competition. The initial program was funded by the state legislature to accomplish economic development goals, but was soon broadened to cover almost any subject area in which a university had expertise usable by a local government, a state agency, or an approved community or business organization. Non-governmental organizations are required to apply for their vouchers through a proposal process. The vouchers are redeemable at any of the state's public and private colleges and universities. The original voucher plans included only public universities, but a strong lobby effort by private institutions opened the door for their participation.

During the first year of the program, the pool of voucher funds was $5 million, but only $2.3 million were redeemed. Neither the universities nor the organizations eligible to receive assistance were well prepared to take advantage of opportunities. In the past 5 years of operation, the publicly provided portion of the fund has increased to $20 million per year and all available dollars have been spent. Part of the reason for the increase in available funds was the amendment to the legislation requiring private sector voucher holders to match their public voucher dollar for dollar.

Scenario #4: University Associates - The Profit Motive at Work

The state's flagship university formed the for-profit-organization, University Associates, Inc. in 1997. The corporation, located in university-owned facilities and directly affiliated with the university, provides consulting and training services, and engages in theoretical and applied research for a variety of clients including business, industry, the health professions and government. University Associates divides its profits between the university and the faculty who comprise its staff. The university receives 40% of the firm's profits; faculty associates 60%. Actually, faculty associates are compensated in three ways: base salaries for the percentage of their time devoted to the corporation, a percentage commission for the money they generate, and an annual profit-sharing bonus. After two years, associates who do not generate funds sufficient to cover their base salaries are dropped from the corporate roster.

The corporation's board and officers support faculty associates' work with marketing; bids and proposals; financial services, including accounting and internal auditing; information systems; legal services, including copyrights, patents, and contracts; and production services such as art and graphic design, typesetting, audio-visual services, printing and publishing. The corporation serves as an internship site for undergraduate and graduate students. A plan is now being developed for senior graduate students to share in the profit-sharing program.

The state legislature passed the laws necessary to establish University Associates, Inc. as a for-profit affiliate of the state university, but the state provides no public funds to the corporation. Start-up funds were obtained from funds built up in the university's old grants and contracts indirect cost pool. For a period of time it appeared as if the corporation would be required to sell stocks, but that option, although available, has not been exercised. The corporation as a for-profit entity, of course, pays applicable local, state, and federal taxes.

Scenario #5: The Profit Motive Again - Free-lance Consulting Made Honorable

Many said he was making a grave error, but the university president insisted on the new policy regarding faculty consultation. His view was that the university should take advantage of its resources rather than artificially define away or restrict some of its greatest contributions. The new faculty consultation policy removes all limits on the amount of time a faculty member may consult for private remuneration, considers faculty consultation a part of the total productivity of the university, provides low cost support services for faculty use in their consultation efforts, and rewards faculty at tenure, promotion, and salary adjustment time for the quantity and quality of their consultation record along with their teaching and publication efforts.

This new policy was approved by the university's board just over two years after tenure was abandoned. Faculty members are awarded multi-year contracts and their performance is assessed annually. As the president suspected, with only a few exceptions, the faculty members with the most productive consulting record also performed best in the classroom. After five years experience, there is a slight increase in the student evaluation of teaching across the university and a major increase in the total productivity report of the university (since these consulting efforts are now included). There has been a slight increase in administrative overhead accounted for by the number of inquiries and visits to campus by persons curious about the new policy.

A Comment

These sketches are not especially new or innovative or radical. Nor is any one of them necessarily the model for universities to follow in the future. But they are indicative of the kinds of steps necessary to unleash the talents and energies contained on university campuses. Some such steps may be brought about by the brute force of the market in a knowledge based/high technology society unless the market finds a way of by-passing the university entirely. Universities, however, might be better off if they joined rather than resisted these market forces.

None of these sketches, except perhaps the first, violate the essential functions of the university. A university does two things: 1) it creates new knowledge or new perspectives and 2) it transmits knowledge and perspectives to others. Most of the debates about what a university should or should not do are not about essential functions, but simply form. There has been a strong tendency on the part of universities and those who govern them to focus attention on form and resist efforts to play out their essential functions in new formats. Outreach is not separate from teaching and research; outreach is teaching and research in forms the university has tended to resist. If universities are to fulfill their potential in serving the essential functions of knowledge creation and transmission, they need to broaden the institutional formats they are willing to use. Otherwise, new institutions will take over major portions of the university's essential mission.

EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS COMPARED ON STRUCTURAL DIMENSIONS

Nancy S. Lieberman[1]

Abstract

The organization of community college continuing education programs varies along a continuum from decentralized to centralized. The question studied here is whether there is a relationship between organizational structure and program quality. Case studies were selected to investigate their relationship in community colleges in the State University of New York. As a basis, the Quality Criteria Model was developed specifically to analyze quality and functions. Indicators suggest that the modified centralized structure results in the best quality program.

There is a question of concern in community colleges. Is there an organizational structure for the continuing education program, as it relates to the overall college structure, which promotes the greatest program quality? A second question which must be addressed follows - what comprises educational quality and how is it determined?

In the recent decade, lifelong learning has become a larger and more significant part of all higher education. Coordinately, community colleges have grown quickly in size and number in recent decades. They are colleges chartered to be low cost, accessible, and with curriculum that is responsive to the needs of the community. They have been a logical site for the rapid growth of continuing education programs. These colleges have the flexibility to respond quickly to community needs, and they emphasize teaching rather than other functions, such as research.

John R. Valley (1978) devoted an extensive chapter in Lifelong Learning in America to where and how the endless variety of needs are being addressed and finds the community colleges to be the most actively responding group of institutions. Reinforcing Valley's statements, Bushnell (1973) says that among the more important functions of the public community college has been adult and continuing education for those in the local community.

Community colleges serve community needs in a time of great technological and societal change. They offer up-to-date education, training and retraining for local citizens. Recent estimates are that most technology becomes obsolete after a period of three years, so that almost constant retraining and re-education is vital to many elements in the community. The other major function of the colleges is in the areas of social services; they provide training for service organizations as well as many actual social services.

In large part, the educational needs of local citizens are met in periods outside the normal working day. These students generally can study only part-time. The kind of administrative structure that is used to manage these programs for part-time students is important because it affects how successfully the college meets these varied client needs.

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[1] Nancy S. Lieberman, Professor and Acting Associate Dean for Lifelong Learning and Community Development, Tompkins Cortland Community College, Dryden, New York. Ph.D. Thesis, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Lifelong learning or continuing education programs virtually all began and were run as separate, independent administrative structures. With their rapid growth and increasing importance, however, educators began to question how best to organize the programs relative to the overall college administrative scheme. Recently, some colleges made radical changes in their organizational structure, integrating the continuing education program function into the academic divisions and dispersing administrative responsibility. Many other colleges are seeking the model which facilitates an effective, efficient operation. This problem is still unresolved and is the subject of this research.

The question of organizational structure began to receive attention in 1975. Milton Stern, in 1975, then Dean of the University Extension, University of California, Berkeley, characterized the situation.

> Continuing education is untidy, messy, sprawling over the landscape of the academy, offered not only in evening colleges or extension divisions, but often in internal schools and colleges that don't even know they are engaged upon continuing education.

He then went on to describe the emerging problem with respect to how best to organize the programs.

> The urgent issue which we must consider is whether continuing education shall be centralized or decentralized. That is, shall continuing education be mandated to a single comprehensive extension division, or shall it be undertaken by otherwise internally oriented departments and colleges of the institution?...It is, obviously a survival question for people employed in extension and a power question for other administrators.

The implications of the choice of organizational structure are brought out in Stern's statement. Even in a time of plentiful resources, the competition between the extension or continuing education division and the other college divisions exists as a struggle for power and territory within the institution. Under easy conditions the struggle is not a very evident, overt activity and will not necessarily adversely affect the continuing education function. However, when resources become restricted, the competition increases, to possibly debilitating levels. Now it is not just power to be distributed, but scarce budget and staff resources. This study attempts to discern optimal organizational patterns without being prejudiced by these struggles.

Organizational choices range from a centralized to a decentralized structure. Centralization is characterized, in this study, by separate administrative control of the continuing education unit, with responsibility for decision-making focused in the unit. In this system, the administrator has power to generate courses and programs, finance them and operate autonomously. Decentralization, on the contrary, is characterized by a diffusion of power and diffusion of the responsibility for operation of the function. There is usually some administrator nominally in charge of continuing education, but it is a position without power to make decisions or operate a program. The function becomes basically a consultative one and quite decentralized. Between the two extremes of organizational structure are many gradations which form a continuum from decentralized to centralized. In some colleges responsibilities for budgeting and decision-making are shared between continuing education and academic divisions, which places their organizational form somewhere between the two extremes of centralized or decentralized.

The importance of organizational structure has been studied and validated not only in education but in more general organizational literature. However, the research thus far has not been sufficiently definitive to clearly support the organization in making a choice of form. For example, in 1969, Joseph Litterer studied organizational structure and suggested that elements in an organization can be combined in a variety of ways that might be called styles. Perhaps the most important differences in style are those that range along a continuum between centralized and decentralized organization. The National University Extension Association (Alford, 1968) used a Delphi exercise during the Spring of 1976 to identify the issues that the leadership of the organization believed would be most crucial to continuing higher education during the next few years. The leaders picked three crucial issues as a consequence of the Delphi exercise, one of which was the centralized versus decentralized administration of continuing education programs. In 1979, Gary C. Pfeifer completed a doctoral research study on the relationship between the administrator's level of influence over decisions in the continuing education division and the organization of the program, comparing New York State community colleges to Massachusetts community colleges. He found evidence that there is a positive correlation between level of influence of administrators and growth of the part-time education program.

QUALITY

Concurrently with the dramatic increase and interest in lifelong learning there has been concern expressed for the quality of these educational enterprises. The programs for full-time students have long had many regulations in place to monitor their quality. As the growth pattern in lifelong learning has accelerated, attention is being focused on the quality of the offerings. John Sawhill (1979) pressed for each institution to police its adult offerings according to the same standards as its more traditional programs.

Leif Hartmark (1975), at the State University at Albany, has been very active in research on accountability in higher education. He says that in higher education, performance is judged in terms of efficiency, effectiveness and quality. The ambiguities in measuring or even defining these concepts is a problem he discusses. Often, he says, efficiency is viewed as incompatible with a commitment to quality, and effectiveness is often confused with efficiency by individuals who are most interested in efficiency, or with quality by those who reject the legitimacy of efficiency as it applies to university programs. He found in his studies of colleges in the State University of New York (SUNY) system that there is general acceptance of the interdependence between effectiveness, efficiency and quality and that one concept cannot be studied without addressing the other two. Concurring with Hartmark, it seems that an investigation involving quality must be holistic, examining each of these three concepts in turn, and as they are so intertwined, examining the relationships among them.

Finally, in his study of effectiveness of colleges in the northeast section of the United States, Cameron (1979) specified the effectiveness domain in three major areas: "*inputs* (resource acquisition), *processes* (organizational health), and *outcomes* (productivity). He suggests that, "in higher education at least, a variety of performance (effectiveness) dimensions need to be included in any theory,...including goals, plans, structures and activities."

This material provided a theoretical foundation for research on the structure and effectiveness of the administration of continuing education, and becomes a basis for the creation of a tool with which to comprehensively study these programs in community colleges. A synthesis of the literature on concepts of quality and methods by which to measure quality led to the development of the comprehensive Quality Criteria Model which was used as a framework for the interviews. From the organizational literature we find that there are three areas of operation which must be examined for any major educational function: the environment, which includes resources and inputs, the system or operating process area, and the goals or the outputs being produced. Each of these three areas was then broken down into its component parts specific to a continuing education program.

METHODOLOGY

The qualitative method was selected as most appropriate for this study. To study community college continuing education programs it was decided to work within the 29 colleges in the SUNY system. Each college was surveyed to determine the operating structure of its continuing education program. Four colleges were selected to be as representative as possible of the range of the continuum from decentralized to centralized. Size was held as a constant, and the environments were as similar as possible as measured by the Index of Differentiation calculated by Carl Haynes (1980).

Data collection was based on the criteria of the Quality Criteria Model created for this study. Extensive interviews at each college involved all levels of administration, faculty and students. The four colleges selected were code named Centra, Metacen, Metadec and Decen.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE COMPARISONS

The comparative examination of the structure of the four colleges showed that Centra Community College is the most highly centralized. It has a strong leadership function charged with almost complete responsibility for the program, including total budget management, scheduling, hiring, and evaluations. The responsibility is somewhat less centralized at Metacen College, though the head of the program is a strong leader. However, some budget management is dispersed into other divisions, and there is a sharing of responsibility in the hiring function, though most scheduling responsibility still rests in the continuing education area. At Metadec College, there is a mix of responsibility for each of the critical areas, and while budget management is split, there is an accounting procedure which keeps the budget lines completely separate so the financial status of the whole continuing education area is monitored closely. In Decen College's continuing education management scheme, administrative responsibility is completely diffused and integrated into academic divisions. The Continuing Education Division administers the non-credit function only, with the exception that Continuing Education does run the summer school.

QUALITY COMPARISONS OF THE CASES

A summary analysis of the quality comparisons of the colleges on criteria of the Quality Criteria Model shows that if the colleges were compared on the criteria of the first dimension only, the input and environmental factors, then the chart of ratings would indicate that the most effective programs were at Centra and Metacen Colleges. This analysis would concentrate on the environment: resources, faculty and administration, facilities, support services and the level of interactions between the college and community, and the autonomy with which the program operates. These are all important factors, but this view would neglect other important aspects of the operation.

Considering the process or system dimension in isolation, the college which appears to have the best operating system is Metacen; in this area the rating of Centra drops because the operation at Centra lacks strength along this dimension. The process or system variables include the flexibility with which the organization functions, and the boundary spanning activities, as well as communications, program complementarity, development and satisfaction of professionals, and student satisfaction. This analysis neglects input and output dimensions, and it is obvious that these are important factors to be considered in a quality analysis.

Similarly, the goal approach to analysis is an incomplete picture. Again, Centra and Metacen Colleges show up best in this truncated scheme. The criteria used in the goal approach are very significant. They include the educational outcomes, service function outcomes, growth, and the goal setting function itself. But, again, this is myopic, without including the other dimensions we lack a solid basis for comparison.

In a comprehensive analysis of all dimensions, the conclusion must be that the organizational structure that approximates the centralized mode is the most effective. The less centralized, the less successful the program appears. However, the highest degree of centralization is less effective than a modified version where there is involvement of the academic divisions in planning, hiring and evaluating faculty, but where major overall control of the continuing education function is in that administrative unit.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The continuing education sector is extremely important and of growing significance in the overall college. The need to manage it in the best way possible is, and must be, a high priority for the college administration. This study begins to yield important information for the colleges to use in their choices of administrative structure.

Another question of significance, for future study, is whether non-credit part-time studies are the first step of an entry-path, in the college, to credit and matriculation. In all of the colleges studied, the top administrators believe this to be the case, but there has been no investigation to find out whether it is, in fact, a functioning paradigm.

Another valuable study would be to investigate the relationships between leadership style and quality. This appears to be another very important factor in administration of a program, as is organizational structure.

These suggestions for further research would add to the results of this investigation of structure and quality in continuing education programs. The present research has yielded a tool, designed and tested, to analyze the quality of a community college continuing education program. The relationship of structure and quality is complex, but indications from this study are that there is an optimal organizational structure for the programs.

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Relationships Between Clinical Psychology Practitioners Expressed Needs and Demands for Continuing Professional Education: Some Conceptual and Methodological Issues

Carl A. Lindsay,
Mary Beth Crowe[1]

Abstract

An integration of concepts and methods for continuing professional education (CPE) needs assessment and program development is presented using the professional specialty of clinical psychology as an example. CPE needs and professional competence are defined as hypothetical constructs with competence being the conceptual inverse of a CPE need. Based on the conceptual approach and comparison of self-perceived CPE needs and demands, it is concluded that multiple approaches may be necessary to converge on meaningful information for CPE program development.

Needs assessment in education means many things to many people. The literature on this subject contains philosophical discussions regarding the meaning of the term "needs" (Griffith, 1978; Monette, 1977; Scriven & Roth, 1978), taxonomies of needs (Knowles, 1979; Monette, 1977; Trimby, 1979) and advice regarding a multitude of methods (Moore, 1980; Pennington, 1980). The common denominator to the many definitions of needs is a difference between an actual and some desirable situation. The desired state does not have to be cast in terms of absolutes or ideals; indeed, one of the criticisms of needs assessment is a failure to recognize that standards for determining needs are relative and that judgment plays an important role. This relativity suggests that need is an umbrella concept (Pennington, 1980) under which fall the many different factors one encounters in the literature such as felt needs versus normative needs, and interests and demands.

In general, the literature tends to be atheoretical, ad hoc, and non-integrative. It has been characterized as a "semantic jungle" by Kimmel (1977) who also questions its utility. The basic problem, from our perspective, has been a failure to adopt a conceptual approach to needs assessment and to make explicit the relationships between the methods and basic goals of needs assesment. Focusing on the continuing education needs of a target profession, we (1) present an approach which integrates concepts found under the umbrella of need; (2) discuss relationships between some of these concepts and methods for assessing them; (3) provide data comparing expressed needs and demands; and (4) discuss the implications of this research for practice and further research. The overall context for this paper is the Continuing Professional Education Development Project (CPEDP) a five-year research and development effort funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and The Pennsylvania State University. Our work with clinical psychology, one of five project professions, provides a specific example of our approach to continuing professional education needs assessment.

Conceptual Approach

The basic term need is an unbounded concept and must be delineated and defined to bring clarity and coherence to any conceptual approach for the basic needs assessment/program development paradigm. While recognizing that there are different types of needs assessment, (e.g., human service, public assistance, health care, transportation, education and training) conducted from different perspectives, (e.g., federal or other governmental level, volunteer or professional associations, employer) which are targeted to different levels of aggregation, (e.g., individual, community, profession, work force, elderly, unemployed) our approach is focused on the individual. Specifically, we are concerned with educational needs from an individual professional's perspective, aggregated to the professional group which the individuals comprise.

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[1] Carl A. Lindsay, Director; Mary Beth Crowe, Project Associate; Planning Studies in Continuing Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802

Following Houle's (1981) prescription for reform in the professions, dynamic professionalization, we believe that the primary goal of CPE needs assessment is the improvement of the performance of professionals. This is an obvious goal, perhaps, but one that is often overlooked in other needs assessment contexts and one that has several implications for criteria for a conceptual model. Needs assessment concepts and methods should (a) be performance-oriented, (b) provide the basis for educational programs or treatments designed to improve performance, and (c) be cast within a framework that provides the scope and content for the assessment/treatment model. We believe that a role delineation or practice description satisfies the criteria for a performance orientation and the scope and content framework.

Turning to concepts, we adopt a diagnostic/treatment approach in defining need rather than a discrepancy or deficit notion. In further refining our concept of need, we draw a parallel between a need for continuing professional education and optimum professional competence.

Needs and competence are both hypothetical constructs, as are intelligence, anxiety, and other psychosocial attributes. Hence, they cannot be directly observed or measured except under elaborately contrived situations. Their assessment rests on a definition of the construct which is typically operationalized through indirect methods such as self report, paper and pencil tests, or simulation.

Conceptually speaking, competence is not just performance, but evaluated performance which occurs in a context. Professional competence occurs in a situation which is defined by the intersection of three variables: the client, the clinical problem, and the setting. (Engel et al., 1980). Thus, we define professional competence as performance which is appropriate to the context or professional situation.

From an individual perspective, professional competence is the conceptual inverse of a continuing professional education need. If, in a given situation, an individual acts competently according to internal or external standards, he or she does not have an educational need. In the generic sense, a need is the factor without which an individual would (does) not perform satisfactorily (Scriven & Roth, 1978). In the present context, a CPE need is the performance or skill area which requires an educational treatment to enable an individual to improve (to a specified criterion) his or her competence in a given professional situation. More formally, we define a CPE need as a latent response set which may, given appropriate stimuli, predispose an individual to engage in problem solving behavior to identify the class of activities or instructional processes (treatments) which will improve his or her performance. An educational demand is the result of the problem solving behavior. It is defined as selecting the specific activity or educational treatment which will satisfy the educational need and making a commitment to engage in the behavior implied or defined by the selected treatment.

These definitions imply a behavior continuum for the underlying construct of need. It begins with latent or pre-conscious behavior, and moves to perceptual behavior, and then to the actual or observable behavior of engaging in an activity to satisfy the educational need. As noted, educational needs, per se, cannot be observed or assessed. Perceived needs are observable and it is this behavior domain that is typically assessed through stimuli provided by perceived need surveys. Educational demands, the domain for market surveys, also can be approached through the perceptual domain, but can be observed only by examining enrollments in CPE programs. Thus, our approach makes conceptual linkages between educational needs, demands, and treatments. However, we recognize the need for and extreme difficulty in demonstrating these complete linkages at an operational level and reserve this problem for future research.

Since by our definition educational needs per se cannot be observed because they are a latent response set, they must be assessed through proxy methods or techniques which allow us to infer needs. Two common modes used for assessing behavior defined as hypothetical constructs are perceptual and performance based methods. In keeping with the CPEDP's practice-orientation, responsibilities and tasks from a clinical psychology practice description developed for project use provided the basis for our perceptual and performance approaches to continuing education needs assessment. Thus, the content or items for our perceived continuing education needs and demands approach were based on tasks which are typically performed by clinical psychologists, rather than topics or program titles, the content for other approaches. We report only the perceptual or perceived needs and demands approach in this paper using data from the project's work with clinical psychology practitioners.

Clinical Psychologists' Continuing Education Perceived Needs and Demands

The data reported in this section represent two kinds of information pertaining to CPE from the individual's perception: areas of practice for which pracitioners feel they could improve their performance through CPE (self-perceived needs) and areas in which practitioners perceive they would actually attend a CPE program given that it would improve their practice (demands). These data were collected as part of a Practice Audit Session in which 40 Pennsylvania clinical psychologists went through a series of performance exercises and responded to several questionnaires. The session was held to provide information for CPE program development.

Method. A survey approach was used to assess clinical psychologists' self-perceived CPE needs and demands. In two separately administered surveys, participants rated 59 tasks which were taken from a practice description derived from a role delineation study for clinical psychology. In the CE needs survey, respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they felt they needed CPE to improve their performance on each task. In the CE Demand Survey, respondents were requested to indicate the probability of their participating in CPE activity regarding each task. For each survey, participants gave their response on a five-point scale which ranged from none to great. The midpoint of each scale was the category, "uncertain". A sixth category, does not apply, was also an option.

Tasks from the surveys were organized under eight broad professional responsibilities: (1) making clinical inferences, (2) planning the intervention, (3) implementing the intervention, (4) maintaining an effective client relationship, (5) organizing the service setting, (6) teaching and training others, (7) research and development, and (8) maintaining professional standards. For the purpose of analysis task ratings belonging to each responsibility were averaged to yield an indicator of need or demand for that responsibility.

Participants. The 40 respondents were members of the clinical division of the state psychological association who had volunteered for participation in the Practice Audit Session. All were licensed and spent at least ten hours per week delivering direct client services. Twenty-five percent held master's degrees and 75 percent held doctoral degrees. All levels of experience and the major theoretical orientations were represented in the group.

Results. The respondents tended to indicate a low need for CPE on the fifty-nine tasks; demand for CPE was rated somewhat higher. As shown in Table 1, the needs ratings at the responsibility level (i.e., averaged sets of tasks) ranged from 2.58 to 3.00, indicating that the group saw little to uncertain need for CPE. The demand ratings ranged from 2.8 to 3.7, indicating an uncertain to moderate demand. Although the respondents did not rate responsibilities as high on either scale, they rated their demands significantly higher than their needs; t-tests between needs and demands were significant ($p< .05$) for all responsibilities with the exception of research and development.

The needs and demands ratings were highly correlated. Although the rank orders on each scale differed slightly, the four highest rated responsibilities were the same on either scale: research and development, teaching and training of others, maintaining professional standards, and maintaining an effective relationship with the client.

Table 1
Comparison of Clinical Psychologists' Perceived Needs and Demands for Continuing Education

Responsibility	Need		Demand		t
	$\bar{x}$	sd	$\bar{x}$	sd	
Making clinical inferences	2.72	.76	3.03	1.06	2.15*
Planning the intervention	2.68	.99	3.13	.99	3.47**
Implementing the intervention	2.71	.77	3.16	1.03	3.47**
Maintaining client relationship	2.73	.88	3.35	1.21	4.04**
Organizing service setting	2.58	.92	2.87	1.10	2.06*
Teaching and training others	2.85	1.19	3.43	1.13	3.29*
Research and development	3.00	1.71	3.16	1.37	1.06
Maintaining professional standards	2.82	1.00	3.74	.99	6.21**

Note: $N = 40$.
* $p< .05$
** $p< .01$

Implications

The overall results not only provide specific information for CPE program development for clinical psychologists but also indicate some relationships between CPE needs and demands in general. They suggest that professionals can evaluate their own CPE needs in terms of practice tasks and responsibilities which are performance oriented, in contrast to the topical areas of traditional surveys. However, the ratings in general were lower than might have been predicted and the finding that needs were rated lower than demands was also surprising.

This pattern of results can be explained by a social desirability effect, whereby practitioners are hesitant to indicate they are deficient in any area and therefore may underrepresent both needs and demands. This may explain why needs, which were essentially a self-report on competence to perform certain tasks, were rated lower than demands, where improvement was assumed regardless of need. We can also speculate that professionals find it easier to report on what they would do to improve their performance (demands) than to evaluate their competence (needs). Support for this explanation can be found in the distributions of the two sets of ratings. For all eight responsibilities, the percentage of the group endorsing the "uncertain" response was lower for demands than for needs, with an attendant shift in higher ratings for demands.

Another explanation for the results is based on the characteristics of the respondents. Although varied in terms of training, theoretical orientation, and experience, all were licensed psychologists who were motivated to attend the Practice Audit Session. Their CPE needs, if they could be truly determined, probably are not in terms of establishing minimum competence, and therefore, were not perceived as great.

Rather, they probably are in terms of improvement towards excellence and may be perceived as incrementally small. Although CPE providers should not ignore maintaining minimum competence, they are also faced with maximizing individual performance.

It is interesting to note that two of the highest rated areas of needs and demands, teaching and training others, and research and development, were among the responsibilities rated lowest in terms of time spent and importance in an earlier survey of Pennsylvania practitioners. This suggests that practitioners associate both needs and demands with areas that are not routinely part of their practice. D'Costa (1982) reached a similar conclusion, i.e., that there was a strong association between expressed needs in practice areas with fewer patients, in a study of physician assistants. These areas may or may not represent needs from another perspective, e.g., that of experts in the profession. This is one example of a situation where multiple sources of information may facilitate the needs assessment process.

This study represents only the individual practitioner's perceptions and is best viewed as the first phase of a multiphase research project. In the absence of an external criterion such as performance on the rated tasks, we cannot say whether self-perceived needs or demands are a "better" indicator of which CPE programs should be developed to improve performance. Our project also offers the opportunity to consider objective measures of performance-based needs, i.e., practitioners' performance on exercises based on their practice descriptions. In a future study, we will compare these performance data to self-perceived needs and demands to provide a more complete picture of our approach to CPE needs assessment.

These results, our conceptual approach, and speculations suggest that multiple approaches to CPE needs assessment are necessary to converge on meaningful information as a basis for CPE program development. However, our approach to the CPE needs assessment program development process which focuses on the individual for conceptual purposes, but relies on group assessment leading to CPE programming for groups, may not be the optimal strategy for improving performance. The development of self assessment/feedback systems with attendant prescriptions for educational treatments seems to be a superior approach for both conceptual and practical reasons. Research and development efforts on self assessment/feedback systems have been underway in a few universities and psychological testing organizations for the past several years with promising results. Translating the conceptual and operational aspects of our current work into a self asessment/feedback approach for enhancing professional competence is a major research agenda item for the CPEDP.

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THE CONTINUING EDUCATION OF MINISTERS: FACTORS INFLUENCING INVOLVEMENT

Richard E. Traylor[1]
Richard T. Liles

Abstract

This study explores demographic and personality variables believed to influence involvement of ministers in continuing education. Participants in the study included 270 ministers randomly selected from 3866 Southern Baptist ministers in North Carolina. Findings indicated that availability of funds, time allocated for continuing education, years of formal education, size and location of the church served, population of the community in which the church is located, and time elapsed since receiving the last degree were associated with the involvement of ministers in continuing education.

Southern Baptist ministers in North Carolina entered their profession through every conceivable kind and level of educational preparation, each of which is considered to be a valid basis for the practice of ministry (Mabry and Stuart, 1974). Unlike other major Protestant denominations, Southern Baptist churches are not governed by any denominational body or board. At the heart of Southern Baptist polity is a belief in the autonomy of the local church and the priesthood of the individual believer (McCoy, 1964). The personalities and backgrounds of ministers vary as greatly as does the nature of the autonomous congregations which they serve. The examination of selected demographic and personality variables of the ministers involved in continuing education and of those not involved was a major focus of this study.

Based on historical perspective and the work of contemporary authorities (Hughes, 1958, 1962, 1973), Baptist ministry as an occupation is recognized by society as a profession. Continuing education for the professions is the fastest growing segment of continuing education. Since 1950, the professional work force in the United States has grown rapidly, doubling to 10 percent of the total population. With the rapid expansion of knowledge has come rapid obsolescence. If the new skills and attitudes necessary to maintain professional proficiency are to be acquired, the professional must maintain a lifelong commitment to and involvement in continuing education. Gamble (1975) and Rouch (1974) defined continuing education for ministers as an individual's personally designed learning program developed with the help of colleagues (laity and fellow clergy) to improve vocational competencies. Continuing education begins when formal education ends and progresses throughout one's career and beyond. It is an unfolding process that links personal study and reflection, and participation in organized group events. In an article on continuing theological education, Graves (1973), a Southern Baptist educator, concluded that ministers must become involved in educational experiences outside their formal schooling if they are to remain knowledgeable in our rapidly changing society and be able to minister to the persons who comprise it.

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[1] Richard E. Traylor, Director of Professional Development and Youth Ministry Coordination, North Carolina Baptist State Convention, P. O. Box 26508, Raleigh, N.C. 27611.
Richard T. Liles, State Training Leader, N.C. Agricultural Extension Service, and Assistant Professor, Department of Adult and Community College Education, N.C. State University, Raleigh, N.C. 27695

A number of influences stimulated the intensification of activity in continuing education for ministry during the 1960's (Phillips, 1976). Factors such as the recognition of the role of the minister as a change agent in solving urban problems, in dealing with human and racial injustice, and in ministering to the needs of a highly mobile society led to the development of learning experiences which were problem oriented and person centered. Continuing education for ministers within the Southern Baptist denomination has been carried out primarily under the auspices of the extension departments of the six theological seminaries owned and operated by the Southern Baptist Convention.

METHOD

The target population of this study consisted of Southern Baptist Ministers in North Carolina. It included 3,176 pastors, 270 ministers of education, 290 ministers of music, and 130 ministers of youth. A random sample included 10 percent of the pastors and 20 percent of each of the other categories of ministers. The instrument used for collecting data was the Continuing Education for Ministry Inventory. This inventory was a questionnaire, designed by the researcher, containing demographic items related to age, income, ministry position, location of church, size of church, time at present church, years of education, highest degree earned, time elapsed since last degree, proximity to continuing education, available funds, and time allocation. The instrument was also comprised of items to measure self-concept (Tennessee Self-Concept Scale), authoritarianism (California F-Scale), and locus of control (Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale). Dillman (1978) provided a procedure for the collection of data through a mail survey.

Both descriptive and analytical statistics were used to study the data collected. In the descriptive presentation, contingency tables showed frequency count and percentage distributions. In the analytical study, an equal-appearing interval scale obtained a measurement of participation in continuing education. A chi-square test of relation was calculated between the scores obtained on the equal-appearing interval scale and each of the demographic and personality variables. Throughout the analysis the .05 level of significance was used. The significant variables were used in a multiple regression to identify those most likely to influence the minister's participation in continuing education in the order of the variable's explanatory power.

FINDINGS

From a sample of 455 ministers, 228 usable Continuing Education for the Ministry Inventories (50.11 percent) were returned and provided the data analyzed and reported in this study. Data revealed evidence that non-pastors tend to have a higher level of involvement in continuing education than pastors. Participants ranged in age from 22 to 72 years. The mean age was 40.1 with 59.6 percent of the participants being between 30 and 49 years of age. There was no indication that a relationship exists between age and continuing education involvement. More than 60 percent of the participating ministers reported a family income of $25,000 or less. Only 1.8 percent earned less than $10,000 and 7.4 percent earned above $35,000. Income was not found to be a significant factor influencing involvement in continuing education.

Those ministers serving in churches located in communities defined as rural, a population under 2500, comprised 38.6 percent of the respondents. The remaining 61.4 percent were located in towns and cities defined as urban communities. Observing the distribution and the chi-square values indicated that the minister serving in the rural community was less likely to be involved in continuing education than his urban counterpart. Likewise, it was concluded that a significant relationship existed between size of church and continuing education involvement. There was almost an even division between those churches with 400 or fewer resident members (54.8 percent), and those reporting over 400 resident members (45.2 percent). As the size of the church increased involvement in continuing education increased. Time at the present church had no relationship to involvement.

Education surfaced as a major factor influencing the continuing involvement of ministers in educational activities. Years of education, degree earned, and time elapsed since last degree were found to be statistically significant. Approximately 90 percent of the participants had attended school for more than 12 years, with the mean years attended being 17.5. As the years of formal education increased, involvement in continuing education also increased. The most frequent degree level among the respondents was the Master of Divinity, the Master of Religious Education, or the Master of Church Music. Less than 2 percent had earned degrees at the doctoral level. At the lowest level 13.2 percent had earned no degree. The observed trend was that as degree level increased, involvement in continuing education likewise increased. On the other hand, an increase in time elapsed since last degree was associated with a decreased involvement in continuing education. Those ministers who had completed their highest degree within the last five years were involved in continuing education at the highest level (32.2 percent), while those who completed their highest degree more than 20 years ago were the least involved (39.3).

Proximity to continuing education was found to have no relationship to continuing education involvement; however, availability of funds did appear to be associated with involvement. Ministers were fairly evenly divided between those who were provided funds and those who were not. Whether or not time was provided for continuing education was also found to be a significant factor. Eighty-two percent of the ministers were granted time from their duties to be involved in continuing education.

Three aspects of minister self-concept were addressed in this study. These were moral self-concept, personal self-concept and social self-concept. The relationship between these three aspects of self-concept, however, was not found to be statistically significant in relation to continuing education involvement. However, there were interesting findings related to the minister's self-concept. Fitts (1965) provided normative scores for moral, personal, and social self-concept as follows: moral self-concept - 70.33 mean score, personal self-concept - 64.55 mean score and social self-concept - 68.18 mean score. Data indicated that the mean score of Baptist ministers in this study was slightly higher than the normative scores reported by Fitts. Mean scores for the ministers were as follows: moral self-concept - 72.42 mean score, personal self-concept - 68.83 mean score and social self-concept - 73.60 mean score. More than 65 percent of the Baptist ministers scored higher than the normative scores presented by Fitts on moral self-concept. In the area of personal self-concept 73.7 percent of the ministers scored higher than the norm and 81.1 percent scored higher than the norm on social self-concept.

The level of authoritarianism seemed to have a relationship to the involvement of ministers in continuing education. Indications were that a high level of authoritarianism produced a low level of involvement in continuing education, while a low level of authoritarianism produced a higher involvement; however, the observation was not supported by the chi-square value. With a possible range of 29 to 203, the mean score of participants (116.35) was not considered high.

Scores recorded by Baptist ministers on Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale ranged from 1 (the most internally controlled) to 19 (the most externally controlled). The mean score was 6.97. Normative data reported by Rotter (1966) for a sample of 400 subjects composed the mean score of 8.3. Nearly 70 percent of the ministers fell below the mean reported by Rotter, indicating that they were more internally controlled than Rotter's subjects. However, the data revealed that no significant relationship existed between locus of control and continuing education involvement.

Five variables (time allotted for continuing education, number of years of education, size of the church, population of the community in which the church was located, and the time elapsed since the last degree) could be used to explain 13.3 percent of the ministers' involvement in continuing education. This percentage and identification of the five variables was secured through a multiple regression.

A major issue of this study was the level of involvement of ministers in continuing education. The respondents recorded scores ranging from 0 to 139 on the equal-appearing interval scale of continuing education involvement. The mean score was 45.99. Although most of the ministers were involved in some form of continuing education (94.7 percent), only 24.1 percent were involved at a high level.

IMPLICATIONS

The high percentage of involvement (94.7) would lead one to believe that most Baptist ministers consider life-long learning to be important. However, few ministers avail themselves of continuing education to a high degree, in an organized plan, or in a formal institutional setting. This implies that the providers of continuing education for ministry within the Baptist denomination need to make continuing education more available, more attractive, and perhaps more relevant to their targeted audience.

Administrators in Baptist institutions of higher education could use the information gathered in this study to develop or strengthen their programs of continuing education for the minister. For example, there is a clear need to reach ministers who are age 30 and under or 50 and above. Programs are needed for those ministers having less than a seminary degree, as well as for those with advanced degrees. Ministers serving churches with less than 200 members or churches with 1,000 or more members and churches in rural areas also need attention. Ministers with less than $20,000 of annual income or more than $35,000 of annual income likewise require specially targeted programs.

Implied in the findings also is a need to assist ministers and their churches plan for continuing education. The North Carolina Baptist State Convention and its Department of Pastor Church Relations are in a position to make significant contributions to the churches' understanding of the importance of continuing education for ministers. Additional research is needed to determine the specific felt needs of ministers for continuing education as well as those educational needs prescribed by specialists and experts in the field. Work is also needed to determine the most efficient and effective materials, methods, and delivery systems for continuing education of ministers.

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INSTRUCTOR BEHAVIORS VALUED BY ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION STUDENTS RELATED TO STUDENTS' PERSONALITY TYPE

Rolf A. Zerges[1]

Abstract

The instructor behaviors most highly valued by 248 continuing education business students were determined and relationships between students' personality type (using Myers-Briggs Type Indicator), sex, and program major and the behaviors they valued investigated. An instructor's competence, use of up-to-date materials, clear explication of objectives and expectations, proper organization and course development, along with fair evaluation practices were the most highly valued behaviors. No statistically significant relationships were found between students' sex or program major and the behaviors they valued; but four of the ten valued behaviors were associated with the personality types of extroversion and sensing.

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Adult part-time students now represent a "new majority" in American higher education. While many investigations have been made about the nature of this market and the characteristics of adult students (Apps, 1981; Cross, 1981; Kidd, 1973; Knowles, 1980), the specific instructor behaviors preferred by adults have received insufficient attention.

A knowledge of the instructor behaviors most highly valued by adult students can contribute to the improvement of instruction and assist in the development of course evaluation instruments. Instruction of adult students is increasingly being provided by part-time faculty, and the need to assist these instructors improve their instructional qualities and have a better understanding of the people they serve are important priorities for adult continuing education.

Variations in student characteristics influence the teaching-learning process (Kulik and McKeachie, 1975) and three specific student characteristics related to valued instructor behaviors were investigated in this study--personality, sex, and program major. The purpose of this study was to specify the behavioral characteristics of instructors that were most highly valued by adult students and to investigate whether the behaviors most highly valued differ based on students' personality type, sex, or program major.

METHODOLOGY

The sample consisted of 248 continuing education students enrolled in 16 randomly selected business and management credit courses at the College of Continuing Education, Rochester Institute of Technology. Students' ages ranged from 18 to 58 years with the median age being 29.

The four business programs in which students were enrolled were business administration (33.3 percent), management (25.7 percent), accounting (14.6 percent), and pre-degree

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[1] Rolf A. Zerges, Director, Business and Management Studies, College of Continuing Education, Rochester Institute of Technology, 50 W. Main Street, Rochester, New York 14614.

management programs (20.7). Approximately 10 percent of the students were either full-time students from other colleges or continuing education students enrolled in non-business majors.

Two instruments were administered: Survey of Valued Teaching Behaviors (Survey) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. The Survey, using a five point Likert-type scale, asked students to rate each of 35 behaviors as "very low importance to me" through "very high importance to me."

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Form G (MBTI), based on the variables in Jung's (1923) personality typology, was used to determine students' personality type. The four major scales included in the MBTI are: Extroversion-Introversion (EI), Sensation-Intuition (SN), Thinking-Feeling (TF), and Judgment-Perception (JP). The reliability and validity of the MBTI has been extensively researched and found to be a "reasonably reliable" and valid instrument for measuring personality differences (Carlyn, 1977).

Analyses of item responses and factor analytic techniques were used to determine the instructor behaviors most highly valued by the students in this study. Ten factors, representing valued instructor behaviors, were obtained using the Varimax technique, Kaiser normalization with orthogonal rotation. A summary of these factors, which accounted for 62 percent of the total variance is presented in Table 1.

RESULTS

Valued Instructor Behaviors

The results of this study suggest that if an instructor wants to be highly valued by adult business students, he or she should foremost have a thorough knowledge of the subject matter and be well prepared for each class. These behaviors, included under Competence (Factor I) were valued most highly by the students in this study.

Competence can be reinforced through the Use of Up-to-Date Materials (Factor II), the second most highly rated factor. Behaviors which complement an instructor's competence also include a clear explication of course objectives and the instructor's expectations (included under Expectations and Objectives, Factor III) and the presentation of material in a logical sequence supplemented with the effective use of examples (Organization and Course Development, Factor IV). Fair examinations and prompt feedback on their performance (Evaluation, Factor V) were also rated by students more highly than the average rating for all factors.

While 10 of the 35 items included in the Survey dealt with favorable interpersonal qualities of instructors (Personal Affect, Factor VI and Responsiveness, Factor IX), these were less highly valued than those behaviors just mentioned.

Instructors of adult students should also take into account students' interest in having course material related to other fields with particular emphasis on relating content to students' career environment and personal experiences (Emphasis, Factor VII).

Personality Type, by Sex, and Program Major

The second research question posed in this study was: "What are the personality types, as measured by the MBTI, of students, by sex and program major?" It was found that the sample closely approximated other samples of business administration students on the MBTI personality dimensions of SN, TF and JP with over 60 percent of the sample having personality preferences for sensing, thinking and judgment. The sample included a significantly higher proportion of introverts (49.6 percent) than other business student samples and this was accounted for by the significantly higher number of introverts as accounting majors.

Table 1

Valued Instructor Behaviors
Factor Preference Scores

Factor		Factor Preference Score
I	Competence (Well prepared for class; thorough knowledge of subject)	4.4347
II	Use of Up-to-Date Materials	4.3831
III	Expectations and Objectives (Explains expectations; clearly specifies course objectives)	4.3669
IV	Organization and Course Development (Effectively uses examples; presents material in logical sequence)	4.2177
V	Evaluation (Exams reflect material covered in class, helps motivate students to do best work; provides prompt feedback)	4.1665
VI	Personal Affect (Sense of humor; warmth and friendliness; displays enthusiasm; enjoys teaching; provides relaxed class atmosphere)	3.9798
VII	Emphasis (Relates subject to other fields: relates subject to students' career or work environment; emphasizes practical application rather than theory; relates material to students' experiences)	3.8812
VIII	Instructional Techniques (Uses a variety of instructional techniques)	3.7258
IX	Responsiveness (Responsive to individual needs; encourages students to provide feedback; out-of-class assistance; open to differing points of view; treats students as adults; effective use of supplementary materials)	3.7211
X	Test Preferences (Essay versus objective tests)	3.1 62

While a majority of both males and females were sensing types, sensors were most prevalent among males. On the TF dimension, females were more strongly represented as feeling types, and males as thinking types. In general, the majority of males were "practical and matter-of-fact" (ST type), while females had personality preferences for both sensing-feeling (SF) and sensing-intuition (NF).

No major differences in personality type existed among students majoring in business administration, management or pre-degree management programs. However, accounting majors displayed stronger personality preferences towards introversion, sensing and thinking than the rest of the sample. This finding is consistent with the more inward orientation (introvert), attention to details (sensing) and emphasis on logical analysis (thinking) required by the accounting field.

Relationship Between Personality Types and Valued Instructor Behaviors

Several multivariate techniques with appropriate post hoc univariate tests were used to determine the relationships between personality type, program major and sex of the sample and their preferred instructor behavioral characteristics. Using multivariate multiple regression analyses (SPSS-X,1983) and univariate tests of significance, it was found that a statistically significant relationship ($p<.05$) existed between the MBTI type of students and the behaviors they valued as measured by the ten factored constructs. No statistically significant relationships were found between the sex or program major of students across the ten factors.

Further tests (full factorial MANOVA and 2 way main effects MANOVA) revealed that only the EI and SN dimensions of the MBTI types of students were contributing to the mean factor preference score differences ($p = .0249$). A post hoc examination of each factored construct identified four factors for which significant differences on the EI or SN scales existed. An examination of the factor preference scores for each of these four factors led to the conclusion that extroverts had a preference over introverts for instructor behaviors related to Personal Affect (Factor V) and Expectations and Objectives (Factor III), and that sensing types preferred over intuitive types behaviors which expressed Responsiveness (Factor IX) and Organization and Course Development (Factor IV).

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

The instructor behavioral preferences of extroverts and sensing types found in this study are in the direction suggested by previous studies on the learning preferences of specific MBTI types, (Lawrence, 1982; McCaulley, 1981; Myers, 1962). For example, extroverts' preferences for instructional behaviors reflected by Personal Affect, (Factor VI), were consistent with their outgoing, enthusiastic nature. Extroverts' preference for a clear explication of Expectations and Objectives (Factor III) appears in line with their communicative tendencies. Similarly, sensing types' need for structure supports their preference for behaviors reflecting orderly and logical Organization and Course Development (Factor IV); and in contrast to more autonomous intuitive types, sensing types' preference for Responsiveness (Factor IX) is understandable.

Based on previous research concerning the learning preferences of specific MBTI personality types, certain instructor behavior preferences by MBTI types were expected. The actual preferences of the sample, by MBTI type, were calculated at the item level using four-way ANOVA tests. As expected, extroverts have a significant preference ($p<.05$) over introverts for the following instructor behaviors: "displays enthusiasm," displays a sense of humor," and "encourages class discussion." Intuitives valued more highly than sensing types. behaviors which "encourage independent thinking;" while sensing types preferred "presents material in a logical sequence;" and feeling types valued more highly than thinking types "warmth and friendliness" and "responsiveness to students' individual needs." As expected, perceptive types valued more highly than judgment types, "having a sense of humor." While these behavioral preferences were consistent with those suggested in other research, five of the 14 predicted preferences were not found to be significantly preferred by the expected

MBTI type.

The results of this study can find practical application in the field of adult continuing education in both instructional development activities and in the preparation of instructor evaluation instruments. For example, part-time faculty are being used increasingly for the instruction of adult continuing education students. These faculty typically have considerable subject matter competence and they usually teach subjects in fields where they are employed full time. Yet, due to limited prior teaching experience, they often know little about the expectations or characteristics of their students. The findings from studies such as this can broaden an instructor's awareness of behaviors to consider in their own teaching, contribute to an understanding of the personality characteristics of students in their class and help instructors recognize the instructional behaviors which are preferred by students having different personality types.

The underlying assumption of this research has been that the views of adult students are worth listening to in the development and improvement of teaching practices. This study has identified what instructional behaviors are valued by an important segment of adult continuing education and the study has shown that certain behaviors are valued more highly than others, based in part on student personality differences.

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TELEVISION AS MOTIVATOR OF ADULT LEARNING

Robert F. Carbone[1]

Abstract

Many adults learn by viewing telecourses and other television programs. There is, however, another important way in which television influences adult learning. A random sample of 2,000 adults was asked if viewing television motivated them to take some action in order to learn more about the subject portrayed. A substantial number of adults interviewed said that television did motivate them to buy or borrow books, read articles, talk with someone else, atterd a lecture or class, or send away for materials related to the program reviewed.

LEARNING FROM TELEVISION

There is convincing evidence that a great many adults regularly engage in systematic learning projects. The work of Tough (1971) and Waniewicz (1976) revealed substantial learning activity among adults in Canada. Penland (1977) and Aslanian and Brickell (1980) surveyed adults in the United States and found similar results. Penland reported an 80% probability that adults engage in learning. He estimated that three out of four adults plan their own learning activities. Interestingly, however, he concluded that relatively little of this adult learning was associated with television.

In recent years it is likely that adults' use of television as a way of organizing learning has increased sharply, primarily because more opportunities to do so are available. The Public Broadcasting System introduced its PTV-3 project, Appalachian Community Service Network programming now reaches a national audience, major cable television systems are more numerous, and the International University Consortium for Telecommunications in Education continues to add members in both the United States and Canada. Telecommunications technology is clearly being used to deliver learning opportunities to more adults each passing year.

The research reported here was based on the contention that television plays another, perhaps an even more important, role in adult learning. Could it be that television is a powerful stimulater of adult learning? Does viewing television cause adults to seek additional knowledge or deeper understanding of topics introduced in programs they view? If so, then television may impact adult learning more than earlier participation studies reveal.

METHODOLOGY

The idea that television is a powerful motivator of adult learning was introduced to the researcher by members of the education staff at the Corporation For Public Broadcasting. A study was designed to investigate the motivating characteristics of television by surveying a representative sample of adult Americans, systematically selected by a respected national survey research organization.

The Roper Organization, Inc., of New York was asked to draw the national sample and to conduct interviews, utilizing their well-established sampling techniques and their staff of trained interviewers. Funding for the projects was provided by the Corporation for Public Broadcasting.

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[1] Robert F. Carbone, Professor of Higher and Adult Education, Department of Education Policy, Planning, and Administration, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742.

A survey instrument, drafted by the researcher, was pratested on several small samples of adults to determine its usefulness for the study. After preliminary revisions, the instrument was further refined by Roper staff members. The final form read as follows:

> I'm going to read you some statements people have made about things they have done after watching a TV program. For each one, would you tell me if you have done it in the last year? First, in the last year, have you watched a TV program, and then...
>
> a. Bought a book specifically to learn more about the topic on that program?
> b. Borrowed a book from a library or from someone you know specifically to learn more?
> c. Read a magazine or newspaper article specifically to learn more about the topic?
> d. Talked with someone else specifically to learn more about the topic on that program?
> e. Talked with an expert or someone who knows a lot about the topic specifically to learn more?
> f. Joined a discussion group specifically to learn more about the topic on that program?
> g. Gone to a lecture or taken a class specifically to learn more about that topic?
> h. Written away to the TV station or somewhere else to receive a transcript or other materials specifically to learn more about the topic on that program?

A multistage, stratified probability sampling technique yielded a representative sample of the population of the continental United States, age 18 years or older, exclusive of institutionalized persons (e.g., in military establishments, nursing homes, prisons and similar institutions). At the first selection stage, 100 counties were selected at random, proportionate to population, after all counties were stratified by population size within geographic regions. Subsequently, cities and towns within the sample counties were randomly drawn, proportionate to population. Where block statistics were available, blocks were randomly drawn within the cities and towns proportionate to population. Where no block statistics were available, blocks or rural route segments were drawm at random.

A systematic procedure for selecting households was followed beginning at the starting household. Quotas for sex and age levels of respondents, as well as for employed women, were imposed in order to insure proper representation of each group in the sample. In addition, hours were restricted for interviewing men in order to obtain proper representation for employment.

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 2,000 adults in their homes, between February 13 and 27, 1982. Telephone validation of the work of each interviewer was conducted by an independent organization.

RESULTS

Responses to the questions are reported as simple proportions of the total sample. Demographic characteristics of the sample add further meaning to the findings and an analysis according to these characteristics is also reported.

Nearly one in ten adults (9%) said they bought a book in order to learn more after viewing something on television. This was true of both men and women and more likely to occur for those age 30 to 44 than for either younger or older adults. As income increased so did this activity; only 6% of adults with incomes under $10,000 purchased books while 16% of those with incomes over $30,000 did so. Whites (10%) purchased books more often than did blacks (6%); and it occurred more in the Midwest (12%) and the West (11%) than it did in the South (8%) or the Northeast (7%). Persons with some college education (16%) did so more than did high school graduates (7%) or those without a high school education (4%); Catholics (10%) moreso than Protestants (8%); Republicans (11%) moreso than Democrats (9%)

or Independents (9%). Liberals (11%) purchased books more often than did Conservatives (10%) or Moderates (8%).

Borrowing a book from a library or from some acquaintance occurred at almost the same frequency as purchasing books -- 9% of the sample said they had done this. Females (11%) did it more often than males (7%); younger viewers (11%) more than older (4%). Books were borrowed more often by those in the higher-income bracket (10%) than those in the lowest (6%); more often by whites (10%) than by blacks (5%); more often in the Midwest (13%) and the West (12%) than in the South (7%) and the Northeast (6%); more often by those with some college (15%) than by high school graduates (8%) or non high school graduates (3%); Catholics (11%) moreso than Protestants (9%); Republicans (11%) moreso than Democrats (8%) or Independents (9%); Liberals (11%) moreso than Conservatives (9%) or Moderates (10%).

Many more adults said they had read a magazine or newspaper article about a subject they viewed on television. In all 18% of both male and female respondents reported doing so. Again the proportion varied by age group with younger viewers (21% for both 18-29 year olds and 30-44 year olds) doing it more often than older viewers (15% age 45-59, 13% age 60 or more). Income differentiated respondents in this category also and those in the highest bracket (26%) did so more than twice as often as those in the lowest bracket (11%). As was the case in other categories, whites (19%) did this more often than blacks (11%); it occurred in the West (23%) and the Midwest (21%) more than it did in the South (15%) and the Northeast (14%); respondents who attended college (25%) did it more than high school graduates (18%) or non high school graduates (9%); Catholics (19%) moreso than Protestants (17%); Republicans (22%) moreso than Democrats (16%) or Independents (18%); Liberals and Conservatives (19% each) moreso than Moderates (17%).

The most common form of activity that adults used to learn more after viewing a topic on television was talking with someone else about that topic. A total of 23% of the sample said they did this during the last year. Of that group females (24%) did so more than males (21%); younger adults more often than older (27% of the 18-24 group, 25% age 30-44, 22% age 45-59, and 14% age 60 or more); those in the highest income bracket (32%) more than twice as often as those in the lowest (14%); whites (24%) more often than blacks (13%); those in the West (34%) far more often than those in the Midwest (25%), the South (18%), or the Northeast (17%); respondents with some college (30%) more often than high school graduates (21%) or non high school graduates (15%); Catholics (24%) more often than Protestants (21%); Republicans (26%) more often than Democrats (21%) or Independents (24%); Liberals (27%) more often than Conservatives (22%) or Moderates (23%).

In sharp contrast, relatively few people sought out an expert to talk with when they wanted to learn more about something viewed on television. Only 7% of the sample reported doing this. In this category, males (7%) did it more often than females (6%); younger viewers (8% in both the 18-29 group and the 30-44 group) more often than older viewers (7% age 45-59, 3% age 60 and over); far fewer in the lowest income bracket (3%) than in the highest bracket (13%); more whites (7%) than blacks (4%); more often in the West (10%) and Midwest (9%) than in the South (4%) and the Northeast (5%); more often by those with some college (11%) than by high school graduates (6%) or non high school graduates (2%); more often by Catholics (9%) than by Protestants (6%); more often by Republicans (8%) than by both Democrats and Independents (each 6%); more often by Liberals (9%) than by both Conservatives or Moderates (6% each).

Relatively few respondents (3%) said that they joined a discussion group specifically to learn more about something they viewed on television. Again, males (3%) did this more than females (2%); younger viewers (3% for both age 18-29 and 30-44 groups) as opposed to older viewers (4% age 45-59, 1% age 60 or more); slightly more in the upper two income brackets (3% each) than in the lower two brackets (2% each); slightly more whites (3%) than blacks (2%); more in the West (4%) and Midwest (3%) than in the South (2%) and Northeast (2%); more by those with some college education and by high school graduates (3% each) than by non high school graduates (1%); more by Protestants (3%) than by Catholics (2%); more by Independents (4%) than by either Republicans or Democrats (2% each); and more by Liberals and Conservatives (3% each) than by Moderates (2%).

Equally small numbers of television viewers attend a lecture or class specifically to learn more about a topic they saw on television. The 3% who did this were equally divided between males and females. As in the other categories, age was a differentiating factor with younger viewers (4% age 18-29, 3% age 30-44) doing it more than older viewers (2% age 45-59, 1% age 60 or more); income also showed a similar pattern with fewer (2%) in the lowest income bracket and more (4%) in the highest bracket; more whites (3%) than blacks (1%) did this; and it occurred more in the West (5%) and Midwest (4%) than in the South and Northeast (1% each); far more of those who attended college (5%) did this than did high school graduates (2%) or non high school graduates (fewer than 1%); Catholics and Protestants did this in equal numbers (3%); Republicans and Independents were equal also (3%) but Democrats were lower (2%); Liberals (4%) were once again more likely to do this than were Moderates (3%) or Conservatives (2%).

The last category -- writing away to secure transcripts or other materials in order to learn more about something viewed on television -- produced low proportions also. No more than 3% of the respondents reported doing this. Females (4%) did so more than males (2%); only older respondents (2% age 60 or more) reported a lower proportion than other age groups (3% each); income brackets revealed a confused situation with more viewers (3%) in the lower categories writing for materials than did those who make under $30,000 (2%) but less than the group that makes more than $30,000 (5%); again whites (3%) do this more often than blacks (2%); those with some college (4%) more often than high school graduates (3%) or non high school graduates (1%); equally for Catholics and Protestants (3%); more by Republicans (5%) than by either Democrats or Independents (2% each); but more by Conservatives (4%) than by either Liberals or Moderates (2% each).

DISCUSSION

These data suggest that a surprisingly large number of adults relate learning activities to prior television viewing. Considering the millions of adults who regularly view television, if nearly one in ten is motivated by such viewing to engage in some further learning activity, television is indeed a significant generator of participants for adult learning programs.

Those who seek to enhance learning opportunities for adults could be guided by this finding as they plan new programs. More wrap-around courses or courses that follow-up highly publicized television programs or series may be warranted. Companies that seek to build good will may want to produce educational materials for viewers of programs the companies sponsor. Schemes for marketing adult education programs might attempt to focus on the motivating elements of television programs as a way of attracting additional clients for their offerings.

A second conclusion suggested by these data is that adults who are motivated to learn more about a topic after viewing television will elect a learning activity that is not a major investment in time. They will simply talk with another person, but less frequently will they seek out an expert. They will read an article more often than they will read a book on the topic. They will buy a book as often as they will borrow one, so it appears that investment of money is not as important a factor to adults as is investment of time. Recall that very few adults joined a discussion group or attended a lecture or a class - activities that require greater commitment of time. Instead they preferred less complex ways of learning.

One implication which follows from the above conclusion is that adult educators might experiment with more short term learning activities, particularly those that do not involve the complexities of formal study (e.g., registering for a course, purchasing a book, attending classes, doing papers, taking examinations). Creation of short, readable articles to accompany a television series, for example, might provide the kind of follow-up learning activity of interest to many viewers.

The finding lead to a final conclusion that derives from the analysis of respondent demographic characteristics. Clearly these data verify the stereotypic profile of adult learners in America -- female, white, young, relatively affluent, liberal, and already relatively well educated. Television motivates these Americans to learn more, but it is less of a motivator for those who are undereducated, underemployed, and underserved by existing adult education programs. This is unfortunate since the latter undoubtedly spend more hours viewing television than do those on the opposite end of the socio-economic-education scales.

If adult educators want to utilize the motivational elements of television to help underserved citizens, they will have to do some creative thinking. Perhaps they can identify potential learning opportunities that relate to television programs which are not intended to be educational (e.g., sports events, soap operas, situational comedies). Short audio tags, run during program credits, might stimulate many more nonparticipants to visit a library, read an article, or talk with someone else about history or human relations; about horticulture or herpes; and perhaps even about Hawaii or Great Blue Herons. That is a challenge that must be met as we are indeed going to move toward the creation of a more egalitarian learning society.

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DELIVERING EDUCATIONAL SERVICES TO ISOLATED LOCATIONS USING INTERACTIVE VIDEO INSTRUCTION

Joseph D. Smith[1]

Abstract

Microcomputer and video tape technologies are currently available and provide the hardware necessary for students to continue their education and/or training while in an isolated environment. The Navy has recently conducted a pilot project to determine the feasibility of using microcomputers and video lessons to deliver accredited college courses in isolated settings. The delivery of college credit courses on surface ships and submarines may provide insight to adult educators on unique challenges in providing educational services for isolated locations.

INTRODUCTION

Since 1962 the Navy has offered college credit courses on deployed vessels. The vast majority of courses offered has been limited to live civilian instruction using a traditional classroom/lecture format. Currently civilian colleges and universities compete for contracts to provide academic and vocational technical courses to shipboard personnel. Civilian instructors go aboard Navy ships and ride the vessel while teaching courses.

Two of the major limitations of the existing Program for Afloat College Education (PACE) are that submarines are ineligible for traditional educational delivery due to their non-accesibility for civilians. Also, small surface ships have considerable difficulty in organizing a cost effective number of participants. The Navy has assigned a minimum of 10 students to begin a PACE course with a live instructor.

In an attempt to solve both the civilian accessibility and class size problem, a pilot study was undertaken to determine the feasibility of using interactive video instruction. This pilot project was conducted on board one submarine and two surface ships with differing results. The isolated nature of the shipboard environment yields generalizations to other isolated locations that may be useful to the practitioner .

NAVY EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

A deployed submarine is by design isolated from non-essential external communication for long periods of time. The submarine sailor is usually above average in intelligence and training. The typical submarine sailor is predisposed toward continued education but the typical live instructor in a classroom setting is not available to him. The combination of security requirements and the unwillingness of a civilian who could be cleared for security to participate in an extended deployment, make traditional PACE impossible. This desire for education, coupled with the impossibility for traditional education, requires an alternative delivery system.

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[1] Joseph D. Smith, Manager, Navy Campus Programs, Naval Education and Training Program Development Center, Pensacola, FL 32509

Similarly, small Navy surface ships (less than 300 personnel) have limited use of the PACE program. Under the terms of the PACE contract with civilian colleges and universities, the minimum number of students is 10 per class. Historically, most academic courses are lower division undergraduate courses. The class size of 10 students means limited use of PACE by small ships due to available users.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Three ships were originally identified for the pilot project to determine the feasibility of alternative educational delivery using video tapes with a microcomputer. One surface ship and one submarine were used with the remaining ship not involved due to circumstances discussed in the findings and implications sections. Both vessels had need assessments conducted aboard prior to deployment with similar results. The most desirable college level courses were computer programming, pre-calculus, and general psychology.

An Apple II Plus was used with a 48K microcomputer containing two disc drives. A Sony 1/2" (Beta I format) video cassett recorder with a Amdek 13" color monitor provided the video. The system uses an interface board that connects the microcomputer to the video device. A fiberglas carrel houses the equipment and provides easy access as well as security.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The findings will be provided according to ship type because vast differences existed in the result. The submarine had 37 enlisted personnel enrolled in the courses. As a result of the time constraints and job-related training, only 60% or 22 of the 37 students completed the course during the 71 days deployed. It should be noted that regular PACE courses using a live instructor has a 64% completion rate. Grade distribution was similar to traditional instruction with 4 A's, 11 B's, 4 C's, 2 D's and 1 F. Evaluation forms were filled out by each enrollee reflecting attitudes toward the interactive system. The submarine students were enthusiastic about the project and all said the course met or exceeded their expectations and all said they would take more courses if available. Command support for the project was very strong on board the submarine.

The surface ships had considerable problems. Deployment schedules for the ships were erratic and support for the program was practically non-existant. One of the two surface ships was excluded from the study due to non-support. On the ship that conducted the study only a 10% completion rate was achieved. Comments on the courses included "not enough time" and "need instructor to motivate". The surface ship personnel are generally lower in academic and training background and deployment includes more in-port time.

IMPLICATIONS

It appears that the use of educational technology for college courses has merit. This is especially true when the target audience is above average in intelligence and education and training background. The deployment of the submarine for 71 days allowed a complete cycle for delivery of instruction rather than the broken time pattern of attempting to deliver instruction with time breaks for in-port activities.

The hardware had no down time and appeared to function without mechanical problems during both trials. A concern prior to the pilot was the relative strength and durability of the equipment. There were no episodes of mechanical failure or down time. In other subsequent trials, potential for mechanical difficulties must continue to be monitored, however. A contingency plan was available for a qualified technician on board each vessel to fix any mechanical problem.

Using this delivery method, no minimum class size is required and availability of equipment can be 24 hours per day, seven days per week. This makes the alternative attractive to the sailor who often works odd hours. Many in the civilian population work odd schedules making this delivery attractive to other populations.

A wide array of subjects can be delivered using this format. It is no longer necessary to have a subject matter expert in only one field aboard. Courses can range from lower division survey courses through advanced work with each student proceeding at his own rate. Each course delivered was internally consistent and of uniform quality because all course work, video tapes and computer software were standardized. Quality control is an extremely important requirement for the Navy. The only limit appears to be the development of "software" to be presented using the hardware.

The delivery of educational services to isolated locations using interactive video instruction has considerable promise. Essential to any delivery system and critical to self paced independent delivery is support from the appropriate command. As was experienced aboard the third ship, the assignment of a low priority, coupled with inconsistent deployment, makes this and any similar project virtually impossible. The submarine had a lengthy deployment and internal support from the commanding officer down the chain of command. Support for education is a good predictor of educational success or the corollary lack of support for education yields education failure. Although this alternative delivery system has promise for isolated populations, without support this or any other pilot study is doomed to failure.

RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE AND OTHER LOVE-HATE RELATIONSHIPS

Don F. Seaman[1]

The relationship between research and practice has been debated and discussed for many years, or even decades, with little or no resolutions achieved about this relationship, or lack of such. Perhaps the reason for this situation is that the perceptions of the relative importance of each concept is distorted by one's experiences, expectations (or goals), and work environment. As Long indicates, "One's perception of a phenomenon is determined in part by the angle and distance at which the phenomenon is viewed" (Long, et.al, 1980, p. 1).

The purpose of this paper is not to resolve nor define the relationship between research and practice (desired or otherwise), but to address the need for both entities to exist and relate, regardless of the type of relationship imposed upon them by the reader. The topics addressed in the remainder of the manuscript include (1) The Importance of Research, (2) The Importance of Relating Research to Practice, (3) Difficulties Encountered in Relating Research to Practice, and (4) Some Approaches to Reducing or Eliminating those Difficulties.

The Importance of Research

The most important reason for conducting research is the "Need to Know". The human mind is constantly seeking to know virtually everything about virtually everything. In seeking to learn, new knowledge is created by individuals who develop and implement research projects in laboratories, classrooms, industries, or wherever. Learning seems to create interest in more learning and the cycle repeats again and again as we seek answers to such questions as "Why? How? When? What? and Where?"

We need to know about life itself for only through knowing all we can are we able to improve it for ourselves and our future generations. We need to know about the learning process in order to facilitate more effective learning activities for adults who strive to improve their learning capabilities. As Long indicates, "We are also insufficiently informed about how the concepts of adult learning and continuing education have changed, as well as about the changing cultural influences on adult behavior" (1980, p. 2). We also need to know all we can about communicating with other individuals. The communications process (or lack of it) can be the catalyst or the inhibitor in determing not only the accuracy of our information but also the accuracy by which it is perceived.

Another reason for conducting research is the need for dependable ways of determining reality and truth. A few weeks ago, Ann Landers (you all know who she is!) published a poem called "The Man in the Glass," and asked if any of her readers knew she had written it. At least ten persons from eight different states either claimed to have written it or claimed they personally knew the author. Whether any research project could ever establish the truth in this situation is doubtful, but you see the dilemma. Anyone can read a body of information, think about the content, and then develop assumptions which seem logical and realistic. However, not until those assumptions are tested through the rigors of a well planned and tightly implemented research study can any dependable conclusions be drawn. The margin for error must be very small in order to insure dependability in regard to the final outcomes.

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[1] Don F. Seaman, Professor, Interdisciplinary Education, College of Education, Texas A & M University, College Station, Texas 77843.

Among the most popular methods of testing for truth, the most popular seems to be the "scientific method". Although it is not infallible, ". . . it has proven more reliable than some other means of answering questions which have been characterized as inflexible, as containing no provision for error or correction" (Long, 1980, p. 6).

Last, but not least, research is needed to bring some kind of clarity and congruity to our emerging profession. There is still much disagreement and confusion as to who we are and what we should be doing. Should we remain broad-based in our professional activities or select a more narrow approach and search for depth within the scope selected? If we can identify segments, or specific divisions within our profession, which should be given priority, if any? Hopefully, good research can provide us with some of the answers for which we are continuously searching. Again, our "need to know" is a constantly driving force, but this need must be refined and given direction for effective results. As professionals, we must always strive to present a clear, precise picture of the nature of our profession and we constantly need competent researchers and their data to support the assumptions we make about our profession and what makes it different from others.

Importance of Relating Research to Practice

I would like to approach this aspect of my presentation by discussing four basic reasons for the importance of relating research to practice in adult education.

1. The needs of the great number of practioners in our profession. As opposed to most other educational fields of endeavor, ours has no pre-service (or undergraduate, if you will) program for professional preparation. It is true that some closely-related areas do have preparation programs, i.e., Cooperative Extension, Vocational Extension, etc., but in general, many of the individuals who enter adult education have better preparation through their experiences than through their initial academic programs-of-study. In addition, many practioners have "backed into" the adult education and/or training profession and need assistance or information which is immediately useful. I am reminded of the young woman who called to request any information we could send her in regard to developing a continuing education program for nurses. She indicated that for ten years she had been a nurse, but the previous week she had been promoted to a newly created position called "Nurse Educator", and she had no idea where or how to begin. She needed help and she needed it "now". How many of us have experienced that situation from one side or the other of that relationship?

2. We must continually develop a base for further research needs. The final test for research findings, for the most part, is how do they hold up in practice? Do they work or do they not? If not, what do the results indicate for further testing and research designs? The effects of "real-world" variables upon research findings can be positive even when the expected results are not attained. If those effects indicate how further research should be conducted in order to more specifically attach an existing problem or answer a specific research question, then those effects, or results of the application of the research findings have been useful. For example, most research studies end by indicating or stating recommendations for further research. The researcher(s) has usually found that procedures for testing the assumptions or hypotheses must be altered in some way, that the sample must be changed or expanded, or that some other change must be enacted. This, in turn, may have contributed as much to the knowledge base as would have been the case if a need for further change or refinement has not been discovered. Only in "real-life" situations, in applying research findings to practical situations, could this be accomplished, and the need for this relationship is never-ending.

3. There is a constant need to apply research output in finding solutions to problems. Our world is full of problems. Without problems, life would be dull and there would be no need for many of us or our professional work. Problem-solving is really one of the most important functions of research. The first step in the "scientific method", which much of our research follows, is "identification of the problem". In fact, the main problem many graduate students have in their research activity is identifying a problem they wish to study from the myriad available to them. Some of the recent writings in adult education deal with the problems of trying to get more adults to participate in the available programs, retention of participants once they enroll in a program, developing more effective learning activities, and trying to ascertain the patterns (if any) through which adults engage in their individual and group activities (Peter, et.al., 1980; Cross, 1981; Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982). Program directors are always searching for information which will enable them to increase enrollments or to at least stop declining enrollments. Research studies which focus upon the nature of adult participation in educational activities are popular indeed since they address the very problems with which program directors, planners, and coordinators must contend daily. It is in the area of problem-solving that research findings are most useful to all adults and the need to utilize them in this manner will never cease as long as adults seek to increase their knowledge.

4. Last, but not least, there is the importance of using research findings in attaining much-needed funding for further research endeavors. If a research study is found useful in solving an important problem or in providing desired knowledge to an organization or agency with funds, the likelihood of further funding is greatly enhanced. Those individuals or groups with "track records" for successful research endeavors are most likely to receive preference in future competition or bidding for grants or contracts. To some extent, the "rich get richer" and the others have difficulty breaking into the mainstream of funded research. Unfair? Possibly. But if you intend to invest your money, don't you seek out the investment most likely to produce a favorable return? The same is true in seeking research funds, and the practicality of the findings is definitely important when one considers that much of the funding is controlled by non-educators, i.e., legislators, philanthropists, or corporation executives.

One example of the importance of understanding the practicality of research activities is the "Golden Fleece Awards" which were previously awarded by Senator William Proxmire to selected research projects periodically. The projects chosen by the Senator were those funded by U.S. Government monies which had purposes that were difficult for most individuals to understand. The Senator usually indicated that the projects had no "practical" value and questioned the method by which such projects had received funding from tax monies. There is no doubt that those researchers singled out for this "award", whether or not deserved, would probably have somewhat more difficulty receiving government-sponsored research funds in the future. That, of course, was part of Mr. Proxmire's purpose. We should always be aware of the possible consequences of research which is deemed wasteful by those who fund our projects. However, we should also conduct that research which is needed and not simply concentrate on those projects for which funds are available. Such a dilemma!

Some Difficulties of Always Relating Research and Practice

As mentioned previously, one of the outcomes of most research studies is a set of recommendations for further research. Often, these recommendations indicate that the assumptions or hypotheses tested must be further tested or examined before valid conclusions can be reached. Such is the nature of theoretical material. Theory must be tested and re-tested before any practical considerations can be given it. The findings must be re-examined under different conditions, or sometimes, under the same conditions. Replications of studies may either confirm the original findings or suggest that somewhat different results should have been produced. In any case, the immediate practicality of such research is virtually impossible, and those individuals who understand the nature and necessity of such through examination have no problem with the time and effort required for the development of new knowledge. However, those who do not understand such phenomena lack the patience and wisdom to wait until research findings have been confirmed and often accuse the researcher of having failed before such evaluation is, itself, practical. Thorough testing is required in the medical, psychological, agricultural, and other fields of endeavor. Should educational research not merit the same kind of attention?

One of the more difficult problems of relating research to practice in adult education is the nature of our population. Our samples are not always conducive for desired generalizability of our research findings. Because the nature of the adult population is so complex, researchers often rely upon whoever is available or they must rely upon such small samples that their findings are somewhat suspect. As Long states, "If the frequent use of students, health care personnel, and other available clusters of individuals, combined with small samples, is characteristic of adult education research, this phenomenon may threaten the external validity of generalizability of the research" (1980, p. 10). Although the problem of diversity within the adult population will always exist, we must make greater efforts to strengthen the generalizability of our research results in order to provide the practioner with something useful in his or her local program. As greater numbers of adults participate in educational endeavors, perhaps this difficulty can be lessened as those same adults begin to realize the necessity for valid research studies for their own purpose.

Another difficulty emanates from the tendency of practioners to ignore all research results in relation to their program activities. Whether they are unwilling to try to read and understand research studies or whether they don't believe research can help them, they prefer to "do it their own way" without any help from anyone else. I suspect that in some cases, those individuals fear that "their way" may be shown to be less efficient or effective if research is to be believed. Therefore, it is much easier to downplay or ignore those findings which may be contradictory to their beliefs and/or operations and simply continue doing what they want to do without regard to what may be better. Know anyone like this? If not, you must not have been in adult education very long.

One other difficulty of implementing research findings may lie in the infeasibility of doing so immediately. If major program changes are indicated, then the cost of new materials or equipment, time required for retraining of personnel and staff, and problems in the reorganization of available space could all necessitate a long period of time before any changes could be implemented fully. This, in turn, discourages the researcher who anticipated some kind of immediate action after he shared the results of his study and may prompt him to think, "What's the use - nobody listened to me anyway." When this happens, the difficulty increases because both the researcher and the practioner become impatient with each other and a good relationship between the two never materializes. (Another love-hate relationship may exist until the impatience and distrust are eliminated.)

How Can We Overcome the Aforementioned Difficulties

In a recent "Peanuts" cartoon, Linus is sitting in a nice, soft chair watching television. Lucy comes up to him and asks him to leave so that she can have the chair. When he doesn't respond, she verbally threatens him, but to no avail. He doesn't budge. Finally, she holds a clenched fist under his nose and he jumps out of the chair immediately. As he walks away, he says, "Finally, somebody is communicating in a language I can understand!"

When people communicate effectively, understanding occurs. I firmly believe that researchers and practioners must open up the lines of communication so that each can develop an understanding of what the other's goals, purposes, and expectations really are. The researcher should understand the urgency with which practioners await new knowledge and information which will enable them to improve the effectiveness of their programs. They are often under the pressures of unpredictable enrollments, demands for profits by administrators, and constantly-changing program content as influenced by fads, the economy, and even legislation. Likewise, practioners must learn to understand that researchers are prone to carefully develop and conduct their studies in order to avoid the errors which would negate the validity of their findings. This may require a long period of time and possibly several tests of the same findings in order to be as certain as possible that the final results will be useful and/or generalizable to the target population.

However, communication is the only step. Once the initial communications are established, I would hope that a sense of mutual need and cooperation would develop. Practitioners usually have access to programs, people, materials, and facilities which researchers often do not have. Researchers have knowledge and expertise in searching for solutions to the problems with which practioners must cope. Why not cooperate and share the resources which each has? We need each other! Only by working together can we begin to accomplish the tasks which face us in building the emerging profession called Adult Education. We are beset with reduced funding for our programs, competition for students and funding from our colleagues in other educational professions, and skepticism from some groups, including legislators, about our ability to make a valuable contribution in solving the educational problems in our society. How can we afford to quarrel and bicker at each other when our need to work together has never been greater?

A few years ago, a young boy named Carl lived with his mother a few blocks from the school which Carl attended. His mother would wait for him to come home each day and although he was far from the top of his class academically, he made passing grades and never seemed to have any problems. Carl's mother noticed that most of the kids walked home in groups, laughing and talking, but Carl always seemed to walk along, usually trailing the other kids. She knew he didn't have any friends at school and she really became concerned when Carl announced that he wanted to give each of his classmates a valentine on Valentine's Day. She knew that his chances of receiving any in return were minimal, but since his heart was set on doing it, they bought the materials and spent several nights making the valentines for the entire class.

When Carl left for school on Valentine's Day, his mother waited anxiously for his return. She fixed cookies and milk for him to help soothe the disappointment she knew he would have. When he came in the door, she saw no evidence to allay her fears, and she heard him say softly, "Not a one." She mentioned the milk and cookies out in the kitchen and as he passed by her, he again said "Not a one." When he reached the kitchen he turned toward her but instead of a sad face, he had a wide grin as he said to her "Not a one. I didn't forget a one!"

What a difference in expectations! Each had a completely different perception as to what was important! The same is often true between research and practice, and we simply cannot afford that kind of situation any longer. Let's be more like Carl and focus upon what we can to to help others instead of worrying about whether we are getting our share. Only in that way can we achieve the cooperation necessary to carry our profession to the levels which we desire in order to make our world a little better place to live.

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